DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 269 719 CS 008 389

AUTHOR Kim, Byong Won, Ed.
TITLE Literacy and Languages. The Second Yearbook of Literacy and Languages in Asia, International Reading Association Special Interest Group. Selection of Speeches and Papers From the International Conference on Literacy and Languages (1st, Seoul, South Korea, August 12-14, 1985).
INSTITUTION Hanyang Univ., Seoul (South Korea).; Literacy and Languages in Asia.
PUB DATE 85
NOTE 152p.; For the first LLA yearbook, see ED 261 338.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC07 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Bilingualism; Cognitive Processes; *Cross Cultural Studies; Foreign Countries; Inservice Teacher Education; International Relations; *Language Acquisition; *Learning Disabilities; *Literacy; Native Language Instruction; *Reading Comprehension; Reading Research; Reading Writing Relationship; Semiotics; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS Asia

ABSTRACT

Cosponsored by Hanyang University as a demonstration of its founding philosophy, "love in deed and truth," this conference focused on literacy and languages from cross-cultural and instructional perspectives. The papers selected for this yearbook and their authors are as follows: (1) "Designing Tasks for Slow Learners in L2" (R.B. Somerville-Ryan); (2) "How Children Cope with the Sentential Mode of Representation in Writing" (Yuji Moro); (3) "Cross-Cultural Comparisons of the Cognitive Processes Used by United States, European, and Asian Students in Constructing Text: Focus on Asia" (Eunice Schmidt and Randall Schmidt); (4) "The Relationships among Alternative Measures of Reading Comprehension in Learning Disabled Students" (Lynn Z. Lang); (5) "Ten Years of Reading Research: Applications for the Classroom Teacher" (Stinson E. Worley and Bruce W. Mossman); (6) "Influencing Change in Language Teaching Strategies through Inservice Education" (Claudia Sullivan); (7) "Role of L1 Literacy in L2 Reading Comprehension" (Safiah Osman); (8) "The Korean Bilingualism in China and U.S.S.R." (Youngsoon Park); and (9) "English as an International Language: Implications and Issues" (Uhn-kyung Choi). (Included are the Bylaws of Literacy and Languages in Asia as well as addresses by Lyun Joon Kim of Hanyang University and Sung-Ok Cho of Unesco.) (HOD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED269719

LITERACY AND LANGUAGES

The Second Yearbook of
Literacy and Languages in Asia,
International Reading Association
Special Interest Group

Edited by
Byong Won Kim

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☒ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Byong Won Kim

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

1985

Published by Literacy and Languages in Asia
In cooperation with Hanyang University, Seoul, Korea

CS008389

Published by
LITERACY AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA

Copyright, 1985, by BYONG WON KIM, Coordinator
Literacy and Languages in Asia

No part of this Yearbook may be reproduced in any form without written permission from the Coordinator of Literacy and Languages in Asia, Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association.

Printed in Seoul, Korea

CONTRIBUTORS

Choi, Uhn-kyung. *Duksung Women's University*
419 Ssangmun-dong, Dobong-gu, Seoul 132, Korea
Lang, Lynn Z. *The Virginia Polytechic Institute and State University*
Home: 214 East Columbia, Falls Church, Virginia 22046, U.S.A.
Moro, Yuji. *National Language Research Institute*
3-9-14 Nishigaoka, Kita-ku, Tokyo, Japan
Mossman, Bruce W. *Southwestern University*
Department of Education, Georgetown, Texas 78626, U.S.A.
Osman, Safiah. *University of Malaya*
Faculty of Education, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
Park, Youngsoon. *Korea University*
5-1 Annam-dong, Sungbook-gu, Seoul 132, Korea
Schmidt, Eunice. *Seattle Pacific University*
Graduate Reading/Language Program, Seattle, Washington 98119, U.S.A.
Schmidt, Randall. *University of Washington*
Home: 739 West Etruria, Seattle, Washington 98119, U.S.A.
Somerville-Ryan, R.B. *Curriculum Development Institute*
5 Pasir Panjang Road #03-12A, Singapore 0511
Sullivan, Claudia. *Institute of Education*
469 Bukit Timah Road, Singapore 1025
Worley, Stinson E. *Southwest Texas State University*
Department of Education, San Marcos, Texas 78666-4616, U.S.A.

PREFACE

Literacy and Languages in Asia (LLA) and Hanyang University cosponsored the first international conference in Asia on literacy and languages in Seoul, Korea, August 12-14, 1985. The conference was supported by UNESCO. The theme was "Human improvements through literacy and languages." Seventy-one conferees and four invited speakers attended the three-day conference, and the delegates represented twelve countries: Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and the U.S.A. The invited speakers were Dr. Lyun Joon Kim, Founder of Hanyang University, Dr. Sang Joon Hahn, President of Hanyang University, Dr. Sung-ok Cho, Secretary-General of the Korean National Commission for UNESCO, and Dr. John C. Manning, President of the International Reading Association. LLA is a Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association.

The second LLA yearbook is a selection of speeches and papers presented at the conference. All were actually delivered by the speakers, except for that of Dr. Lynn Z. Lang who was unable to participate in the conference.

As the editor of the second yearbook, I would like to express my gratitude to the contributors. I also express my thanks to Prof. Sam R. Snyder (The University of Toledo, Ohio, U.S.A.), a visiting professor at Hanyang University, who assisted me with the editorial task. Finally, LLA and I would like to express our sincere gratitude to Hanyang University for the financial support without which the yearbook could not have been published.

Byong Won Kim, Ed.D.
Associate Professor of psycholinguistics
Hanyang University
Seoul

Table of Contents

PAGE

CONTRIBUTORS iii

PREFACE v

"LOVE IN DEED"

LYUN JOON KIM, HANYANG UNIVERSITY xi

"SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CONFERENCE"

SUNG-OK CHO, UNESCO xiv

PART ONE

CHAPTER

I. **DESIGNING TASKS FOR SLOW-LEARNERS IN L2**
R. B. Somerville-Ryan 3

II. **HOW CHILDREN COPE WITH THE SENTENTIAL MODE OF REPRESENTATION IN WRITING**
Yuji Moro 23

Introduction
A theory of writing as a semiotic activity
Developmental changes in sentential mode of representation
Summary
Notes
References

III. **CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISONS OF THE COGNITIVE PROCESSES USED BY US, EUROPEAN, AND ASIAN STUDENTS IN CONSTRUCTING TEXT: FOCUS ON ASIA**
Eunice Schmidt and Randall Schmidt 37

The purpose of the study
The design of the study
Measuring the data
The analysis of the data
The results of the study
Summary and conclusions
References

PART TWO

IV. **THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ALTERNATIVE MEASURES OF READING COMPREHENSION IN LEARNING DISABLED STUDENTS**
Lynn Z. Lang 63

Scope of the study
Significance of the study
Summary of procedures
Summary of findings
Discussion
References

V. **TEN YEARS OF READING RESEARCH: APPLICATIONS FOR THE CLASSROOM TEACHER**
Stinson E. Worley and Bruce W. Mossman 73

Teacher-student interaction
Pacing and content covered
Managing instruction
Reading comprehension
Reading-writing relationships
Summary
References

VI. **INFLUENCING CHANGE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING STRATEGIES THROUGH INSERVICE EDUCATION**
Claudia Sullivan 81

Introduction
Background
Characteristics common to REAP and successful teacher training programmes
Results
Conclusion
References
Appendix A
Appendix B

PART THREE

VII. **ROLE OF L1 LITERACY IN L2 READING COMPREHENSION**
Safiah Osman 101

Introduction
Relationship between L1 and L2 reading
The study
Pedagogical implications
References

VIII. **THE KOREAN BILINGUALISM IN CHINA AND U.S.S.R.**
Youngsoon Park 121

Introduction
Concept and importance of bilingualism
The Korean-Chinese bilingualism
The Korean-Russian bilingualism
Conclusion
References

IX. **ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: IMPLICATIONS AND ISSUES**
Uhn-kyung Choi 131

BYLAWS OF LITERACY AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA 141

*LOVE IN DEED**

LYUN JOON KIM
Founder-Chairman of Board of Trustees
Hanyang University

One of the major reasons why Hanyang University decided to cosponsor with Literacy and Languages in Asia (LLA) the International Conference on Literacy and Languages in Seoul, Korea, August 12-14, 1985, was that "Love in deed and truth" is the founding spirit of the University, and that it was understood that cosponsoring the conference would be an example of the demonstration of love and friendship.

God and Nature always show Love toward humans. It is the example of love of God and Nature that we are allowed to live on earth and that the human history is allowed to run. You and I ought to show the genuine love to all people around us. The spirit of love and its practice is the core of my educational philosophy, and it is the foundation of the history and tradition of Hanyang University.

People have different jobs to do. Each of us has a different background and knowledge. You and I are in the same boat, which is called "education."

We always find people who need education around us wherever we go, regardless of the level of development of society, culture, and education of the country. As scholars, profes-

* This is the edited text of Dr. Lyun Joon Kim's dinner speech delivered at the dinner party held in his honor on August 13, 1985, of the International Conference on Literacy and Languages cosponsored by Literacy and Languages in Asia of the International Reading Association and Hanyang University, Seoul, Korea.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

sionals, and educators, our practice of love is to provide them what they need educationally.

Language, spoken and written, is the tool to be used for various human activities, for collective achievements, and for the improvement of individual intellect and techniques. You do research on and teach language and literacy classes; you are practising love by helping people to be delivered from educational, intellectual, and spiritual underdevelopment. I would like to express my respect to you who are committed to the significant mission of research and the educational enterprise.

We as human beings can hardly find moments, during our long life, when we can survive without the aid of language. Language is inevitable and crucial to our survival. However, an examination of the actual use of language in life shows that not all people use their language effectively and efficiently.

In fact, it is an extraordinary ability to use language for the satisfactory expression of one's thoughts and intentions. Such ability is not easily acquired. The acquisition of such ability requires education at a higher level, the ability to use language for technical, cultural, and professional purposes.

Reading and writing ability, or literacy, is not a simple skill. It is the moment of spiritual delivery from imprisonment when a person begins to read and write. Speaking of the problem of illiteracy in the world, we are far from finishing our mission toward the eradication of illiteracy. Quite a few people are waiting for your love in helping them out of imprisonment.

The problem appears bigger when we look into functional literacy. We ought to help students to develop their functional literacy at a higher level at the undergraduate and graduate school because the leaders in society need the higher ability to use written language for the development of civilization.

Education and research studies in foreign language call for

even higher levels of your devotion. Countries, developed or underdeveloped alike, demand English as an international language. English education for immigrants in the United States constitutes a serious problem; English as an international language in other countries where English is not used will be an important factor relevant to the development of the country and the improvement of individuals. Foreign languages other than English ought to be studied and taught, as well. These are the tasks that are waiting for your research skills and educational endeavors.

My sincere wish is that this international conference cosponsored by Hanyang University and LLA, a Special Interest Group of the International Reading Association, will contribute to research and development of literacy and languages in Asia and in the world.

*SIGNIFICANCE OF THE CONFERENCE**

SUNG-OK CHO
Secretary-General
Korean National Commission
for UNESCO

I think we all agree that the LLA conference on literacy and languages is one of the most significant conferences ever held under the umbrella of the International Reading Association. The Association was established about 30 years ago, and as of 1984 it has a membership of more than 57,000 from 84 countries, whose purpose is the improvement of reading research studies, reading instruction and reading habits at all levels.

One fact that we can hardly overlook, however, is that 92% of the IRA total membership is composed of members from the United States, while the membership from Asian countries is only one-half of one per cent. This membership distribution imbalance within the Association leads us to consider that the organization may experience some difficulty in assisting members from Asian countries to contribute appropriately to the attainment of the goals of the Association.

In the United States, reading programmes of education departments in major universities produce professors, specialists, and reading teachers. Reading has long been scientifically studied, and a great variety of educational material

* This is the edited text of Dr. Sung-ok Cho's celebrating speech delivered at the opening session of the International Conference on Literacy and Languages, August 12-14, 1985

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

in this field has been developed for use at all levels. The situation in Asia is different. For example, we have no reading speciality at the university level in Korea, and reading is not an established research field; nor is it a separately established subject at any level. To the educated mind in Korea "reading" refers to "book reading" as an intellectual or leisure time activity. It is largely a "hidden subject" within school curricula.

This conference will surely offer all of us a significant chance to contribute to the achievement of the goals the IRA has, from a different orientation than that which the 92% of the IRA members may have in common. The results of this conference and the experiences you will share at the sessions will contribute to the furthering of the IRA goals, which UNESCO wants to see realized in every corner of the world. We believe that scientific research studies of reading, writing and language acquisition, improvement of instructional methods and materials in reading, writing, and language teaching, and the promotion of habits of reading and writing at all levels will bring human improvements and peace on earth as well as eventual development of science, culture, and civilization in the world.

PART ONE

LLA 2nd Yearbook 1985
Literacy and Languages

Chapter 1

Designing Tasks for Slow-Learners in L2

R.B. Somerville-Ryan
Curriculum Development Institute
Singapore

The title of this conference 'Literacy and Languages in Asia' seems to me to be a particularly appropriate means of recognising the importance of this area in the development of our knowledge about languages, language learning, and the related questions of the nature of literacy and how that is acquired. Given considerable linguistic diversity and the immediate demands that rapid economic development place on their education systems, Asian policy-makers are demanding a practical pedagogical synthesis which applies the major parameters of our knowledge to immediate classroom applications in first and second language teaching, and in the development of programmes promoting large-scale literacy. This demand often requires professionals in the area of language curriculum development to operationalise theories with greater confidence than they may feel is warranted, but it does ensure that the synthesis of theory and practice has its most challenging realisation in our area. The synthesis involves several different factors, including theoretical formulations as to the nature of language and language learning; research initiatives into the nature of classroom practice and discourse; a wide research effort into problems of literacy and the acquisition of literacy; and practical developments in syllabus and curriculum design. While most of the theoretical issues which have influenced these developments have originated in Europe and America, the nature and complexity of language policy and curriculum change in Asia has meant that it is one of the most exciting arenas for practical research into language learning, and curriculum implementation where the synthesis is made real. It is significant that one of the most exciting developments in second language syllabus and materials design, the procedural or task approach to second language learning began in Asia, in the Communicational Teaching Project in Bangalore (RIE 1978-1983).

In this paper I will look briefly at this approach to explore how it is related to more general questions of language learning theory. Then I will introduce procedures and designs which we have developed in Singapore for slow learners who are acquiring English in immersion programmes. The LEAP programme which we have developed owes a lot to the theoretical basis of the Bangalore project and the work of its director, N.S. Prabhu, but given the very different circumstances under which we work, and the different requirements for second language which our pupils have, we have made several important changes in the design of language learning tasks.

Briefly the Bangalore model provides pupils with some problem which requires solving. The problem may be based on a railway timetable, a school timetable, a mathematical construction, or some phenomenon that presents pupils with a number of questions which they have to resolve. Tasks are usually preceded by a pre-task orientation session which sets parameters for the work pupils have to do, or familiarises them with some of the conceptual aspects of the task. The task is presented in a variety of formats: dialogues, puzzles, or reading passages. An example of the type of task developed by the Bangalore team can be found in the appendix. It can be seen quite quickly I think that these are very different from the traditional language learning activities with which we are familiar. First they are marked by a complete lack of the direct teaching of language items such as tenses, articles, adverbs, etc. Support for this 'minimal teaching strategy' has been growing over the last few years. Allwright contrasted linguistic competence and communicative competence in 1979 and indicated that for the latter, courses should have no obvious language teaching materials or linguistic content for its own sake; the teacher should avoid correction entirely and not focus unduly on the formal rules or knowledge systems of the language. Instead, the teacher should be supportive; give the pupils time to work at their own pace, and keep them busy on 'productive' tasks. With the emphasis on fluency and on engagement in productive tasks, it is assumed that accuracy will come later. Certainly, the counter-emphasis on accuracy had not stopped failure. In fact dissatisfaction with existing situational-structural approaches was a major reason for the curriculum experiment in Bangalore.

This approach has taken the emphasis away from the descriptive or logical adequacy of the content specification of the language syllabus, and turned it to concepts which are part of skill theory and the study of

classroom interaction and discourse. The underlying assumption of this approach represents a significant break with much of the recent past in the field of second language learning. The inventory specifications of language syllabuses assume that pupils learn what teachers teach; that the content or skills specifications of the language syllabus are assimilated by the pupils. The task approach is founded on a fundamentally different theory: that language is acquired through use. In the area of reading, of course we are familiar with the cognitive models (Smith 1978) which claim that particular skill areas, such as reading, are acquired directly through use. But the Prabhu formulation is one of the first to claim that second languages are completely acquired in the same way.

Linked to this is another important theory: that direct teaching will have little effect on the natural processes of acquisition, but rather that it may in fact have a negative effect. In Prabhu's view "language is best acquired when learner's attention is on meaning—when, that is to say the learner is pre-occupied with understanding, working out, relating or conveying messages, and copes as well as he can with the language involved" (Prabhu 1983). Language is acquired through 'organic' processes, and 'genuine deployment' leads to acquisition. 'Mind engagement,' and the need to communicate mark genuine activities. These statements fall comfortably within the received wisdom of the communicative approach, and can be accepted fairly readily by designers who wish to make their materials more relevant to the pupils' communicative and social needs. According to this received wisdom, traditional inventories and discrete item designs should be replaced by hierachies of tasks and task types, which preferably are 'authentic' or at least sufficiently authentic to permit the pupil a willing suspension of disbelief in order to get the job done.

What has become popular is an emphasis on 'interaction' of all forms. First, there is interaction of a social nature in a pedagogy which includes direction, navigation, negotiation, and compliance; and where teaching involves interactional management in turns, topics, tasks, tone, and code (Allwright 1984 a,b,c). Cook (1982) extended this sociolinguistic emphasis towards a more cognitive orientation by presenting an interactionist model which links the interactions between the learner's mental make-up and the situation in which he is learning. It is an active model: the learner is a dynamic part of the process, and cognitive factors are seen to have the greatest role to play in determining the pupil's learning behaviour: factors such as how the learner encodes the information he receives about

the language and how it is used, and how he constructs messages he wishes to communicate in a variety of modes or registers.

I will look briefly at the language teaching models which Prabhu is rejecting: the structural-situational syllabus designs, and other inventory-based designs such as the recent functional/notional syllabuses, and more explicit communicative models. Work in descriptive inventories of languages has progressed markedly in the past ten years. We are all familiar with rigid inventories of the past, where the language was broken up into a succession of teaching points which were then taught in situations of varying realism and appropriate grammatical explanations with a widely varying accuracy and thoroughness. The problems generated by this type of formal approach are universal. First they involved a considerable simplification of the target language which could lead to errors becoming very widespread. For example, the teaching of the Present Continuous tense in English to indicate that something was taking place in the immediate present generally omitted the restrictions that apply to its use with stative verbs, leading to such sentences as:

*I am having a sore throat.

Another feature of the simplification of the target language is its general limitation to sentence level models of the language. Modern discourse analysis has indicated that rules which apply across much wider samples of text than sentences have an important part to play in the actual learning of the language and how to use it, especially in areas involving the development of literacy, and it is rare to see a professional journal now that does not contain an article on the effect of text structure on comprehension and learnability, or the effect of discourse patterns on developmental writing.

Also inventory prescriptions often set up a rigid timetable for the introduction of grammatical items which is completely at odds with the functional demands the pupils may have had for the language, especially in bilingual or immersion situations. Again my example can be drawn from the Present Continuous tense. In traditional syllabus designs it is generally one of the first taught because of the ease of demonstrating how to form and use it to indicate present actions. Yet, in normal discourse it is rarely used this way. More frequently it is used to indicate a future plan or intention. Even more crucial in immersion situations is the fact that this tense is almost

useless in other curriculum areas such as Maths or Science, where the Present Simple and Past Tenses are needed at the very first point of instruction.

Further there are the general complaints that the traditional structural-situational approach did not work. If students learnt the language well in a controlled classroom situation they did not seem able to transfer this learning to more general situations where a more flexible mastery of the creative processes of the language was equired. The hierarchy of items in the syllabus did not seem to be endorsed by any research effort, nor was it based on any sound theoretical model of the underlying structure of the language. Many of these theoretical models were themselves so abstract as to be a little practical use to a syllabus or curriculum designer.

There have been significant changes of course. The functional-notional approach provided designers with a radically new choice. The more complete of these, the models of Wilkins (1976) and van Ek (1977), consist of exhaustive lists of language functions such as inquiring about and giving factual information; and notions such as talking about the future, and talking about the past. The threshold syllabus, perhaps the major example of the type, included an enormous inventory of grammatical exponents by which the various functions and notions could be realised in a language lesson. One effect of these comprehensive inventories has been to ensure that modern second language teaching materials are completely reshaped in the new terminology. At more important levels it can be seen that the more complete inventories of language in use which these approaches offer leave quite major decisions to the curriculum designer: the order of introduction of particular functions, notions, or language items; the process of cyclical re-presentation with more complex situations, and the overall qu- .ion of complexity itself; and the general question of whether the mode' thus learnt can be transferred to real language situations outside the classroom are left largely to the designer and the teacher to resolve, notwithstanding an extremely valuable review done recently by Brumfit and Finocchiaro (1983).

The functional/notional model is most directly applicable in situations where the target language is being learnt for a specific reason; where the functions or notions can be defined in a relatively precise way, and where the situations in which the language will be used can be similarly defined and analysed. The most thoroughly worked out 'communicative models' (Munby 1978) are also based on a description of the language as a complete entity. As with the functional models this content inventory is

based on sociolinguistic analysis as well as traditional grammatical analysis, but the crucial distinction which can be made by proponents of the procedural approach is that this is a case of working from a mature complete artefact of the analysis of language, a product, rather than a case of analysis of the processes of learning the language. A case of 'linguistics applied' in Widdowson's terms, rather than 'applied linguistics' (Widdowson 1984).

However, we are often faced with a very different situation. Most of our pupils are learning the language for no particular purpose, or, as in immersion situations in Singapore and elsewhere, are learning the language for reasons of its social, commercial and vocational importance which thus stretch the capacities of even the most thorough functional inventories. Where does this leave curriculum designers who are dealing with the problems of slow-learners or low-proficiency students? Can we apply the procedural syllabus to materials design in immersion situations where we are dealing with pupils who must learn the language as a vehicle of initial literacy and as a means to achieve the educational and vocational goals of the system? Our work has indicated the need for some caution. For a start the concept of needs must be extended significantly. An inventory-based syllabus may no longer be an adequate response to the learning problem our pupils bring to the situation. Our questions cover not only what the pupil needs to know, but whether he can learn it anyway in school situations. The Prabhu model rejects the value of content specifications entirely—relying on processes of organic acquisition, but we need to look closely at the assumptions on which the 'organic-acquisition' claims are based. In the work dealing with the task approach the model of acquisition on which it is based is not particularly well-defined. There seem to me to be at least two different interpretations current: one a passive model that relies on different innate structures or procedures, and a more active 'hypothesis-testing model.' The first of these is implied in the reliance on 'organic processes.' The second more active model seems to be implicit in the links the proponents make with various skill models (Prabhu 1983).

The more 'cognitive' of the acquisition models assign the learner very general capacities which interact with the environment and maturational factors to provide for an active learner role in language learning. At the other extreme the child is identified as a 'little linguist'; the learner carries a model of an innate universal grammar which he applies to language input and language is acquired through processes which depend relatively little on teaching methodology or materials, and in the Chomskiian

paradigm at least, retreat further into the recesses of an inaccessible black box. In the strongest models, second language acquisition is seen to rely on the same principles of Universal Grammar on which first language acquisition is based (Cook 1985). The fundamental principle here is that the model of language provided to the learner is so poor that innate structures must be presumed to provide for acquisition. The role of the environment is to provide the necessary 'triggers' to allow this organic development to unfold, and the maturation of the child accounts for factors such as variations influenced by short-term memory capacity and skill development.

The Chomskiian paradigm is explicit in early models of interlanguage research (Adjemian 1976), and in recent restatements of the need to accept that a learner's attempts to use the target language have a systematicity and logic of their own (Bley-Vroman 1983). While not necessarily endorsing this paradigm, there is a considerable body of research which seeks universal orders of acquisition in second language learning (see review in Burt & Dulay 1980), or which seeks the underlying systematicity in the learner's interlanguages. The practical consequences of this work are not always made explicit, or tend to be expressed in negative constraints on curriculum and syllabus designers rather than to provide empirically verified directions which syllabus designers can actually use. For example syllabus designers can be attacked on the grounds that their models of the language do not match the learner's internal syllabus, and that errors and distortions of the target language result. In fact, the applicability of this research to syllabus design is limited. While the order of acquisition of a number of morphemes was initially seen to be relatively stable across different learners and situations, recent work by Huebner (1979), Tarone (1983, 1982, 1979) and Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985) has highlighted the variability in these orders, and the variety of factors which may influence acquisition of specific items.

The significance of this work for syllabus and curriculum designers is a little difficult to pin down. On the one hand there is an implicit assumption that natural orders will assert themselves (whatever they may be based on) provided the input is sufficient to provide the 'triggers.' On the other hand there is little to determine with any certainty what order of language items or language model in a pedagogical grammar will provide the necessary input to assist the learner to realize this acquisition process. There is an unfortunate tendency for proponents of particular approaches

to language learning and acquisition over the last few years to rely on natural processes of acquisition as the fundamental explanatory elements in language learning. The reasons for this are the generally unsatisfactory nature of most of the grammatical descriptions of languages that we have used in the past; and a more important reason, the wide belief that these traditional inventory-based approaches have not worked. Foremost among these approaches are the Monitor model of Krashen (1981), which splits language learning into a two track process: the more effective acquisition which involves 'natural processes,' and the process of 'learning' which is used most by adults who have passed the critical age of language acquisition and must use formal cognitive skills and strategies to learn the language. The procedural syllabus model of Prabhu (Prabhu 1983; Johnson 1982; RIE 1978-83) similarly looks to 'organic' processes. However, this shift does not really make the problem any easier for curriculum developers. In fact it means that a previously stable base of content which could be structured and sequenced in a programmatic way with appropriate feedback systems, has been replaced by a far more nebulous process which is far from being definitively described.

The issue here is covered well in a recent article by Gloria Sampson which reviews the role of the teacher in the language-learning process. Sampson offers a dialectical view of the interaction between the form of the language and the function which it serves (Sampson 1982). Sampson's approach is committed to an active learning process rather than an apparently passive acquisiton model which relies solely on biological or 'organic' processes. The role of the curriculum designer here is to craft an interactional environment of functional settings which extend the range of language uses to which the learner has access. She uses the term of 'teachability' and says:

"Why should the notion of teachability be so important? Precisely because without the teachability assumption it must be assumed that the innate language acquisition device is a genetic given, over which no one, including the learner, has any control. Thus when learners do not learn, under the innate mechanism hypothesis, nothing can be done to remedy the situation. The inference to be made under the innate mechanism hypothesis is that the learner did not learn because he or she is biologically handicapped in some unknown way. There can be no hope for educational intervention, since society and external forces play no role in language acquisition." (p23)

Traditionally curriculum design has begun with a needs analysis of the pupils in order to determine what type of educational materials and procedures are necessary. In language teaching this phase has rarely been adequately done, and as recently as the 1983 RELC conference, Brumfit challenged whether the traditional Taba approach to syllabus and curriculum design was really applicable to language teaching (Brumfit 1983). Brumfit felt that a language syllabus should be bound by different parameters: a focus on communicative abilities as goals; an orientation to either accuracy or fluency as determined by the goals of the course; and a description of a pedagogical mode whether individual, private interactional, or public interactional. This again shifts the focus of language learning from content specifications to the nature of the interaction between teacher and pupil; learning becomes in part a function of communication, interaction, and negotiation for meaning.

I have raised these questions here, because the curriculum project we have been working on for the past two years has had to come to grips with the problem of failure; both to learn a target language, and to learn in that language in other areas of the curriculum. Why do children fail to learn languages? Why do some children fail to acquire languages in 'immersion' situations where the language is of crucial importance to their future in education and in vocational choices? These are the first questions that curriculum designers must face in the task of designing curriculum strategies and materials for slow-learners or low-proficiency students. They are questions that have important social, economic and political ramifications within an educational system, and they present professionals with problems of justifying and determining the allocation of resources, and of designing coherent teaching procedures and appropriate materials. The bilingual policy of education in Singapore has meant that these questions have been complemented by another: whether some children are simply not capable of learning two languages in a school setting, and to levels determined by the school system. In 1979 a major review of educational policies in Singapore (MOE 1979) decided that children who had failed in the primary system for their first three years should be streamed into a programme which allowed them to master one language for school purposes, and which would ideally allow these pupils to progress towards basic oral fluency and literacy in that language at their own pace. For the last two years the Monolingual Curriculum Project team at the Curriculum Development Institute of Singapore has been developing materials for slow-

learners and low-proficiency students in this stream.

There are many reasons for this failure: some have to do with simple differences in the rate at which children master different aspects of the language. Others indicate differences in response to the demands of the school system which as in most other countries demands accuracy, a level of grammatical or metalinguistic knowledge which is very complex, and a register of language which tends to be context-reduced, and cognitively demanding (Cummins & Swain 1983; Swain & Cummins forthcoming). The Canadian work stresses the importance of mother-tongue development by suggesting that progress in the second language may be interdependent with progress in the mother-tongue, and that there may in fact be a threshold of competence in mother-tongue which is necessary before significant progress can be made in L2. Genesee (1976, 1983) dealt with some of the questions that are particularly relevant to the design questions that have faced us. He noted that pupils who scored well in IQ tests showed greater performance levels in second language lessons that required academic or literate skills, but that performance on informal 'communicative language activities' was not so stratified. It seems to me that this type of information is important in that it indicates both a starting point for the curriculum design and some order in which the tactics of a lesson and the strategy of the programme may be developed.

There is always a tendency for intelligence to be seen as a determiner of language learning skills. This is a problem in test situations where performance in the skills of literacy is accepted as evidence of future performance at acquiring those skills. Beginning with 'communicative programmes' would offer a curriculum strategy which was at least neutral to this 'test-wise' performance, and it could offer a consistent direction in which teacher guidance could move. A programme could begin with communicative approaches, and develop these in relatively structured ways towards the attainment of the basic skills of literacy which seem to be the main determinants of failure. If slow-learners are mainly characterised by their lack of mastery of the skills which are essential to academic proficiency, this should be the direction in which the programme moves.

One of the problems of a language programme is that if one excludes structured exposure to the grammar, there seems to be little else in the programme that may not be better taught in other subject areas. The alternative to facing this is of course to base the course, and all language related courses across the curriculum, on specified skills and behaviours. The prob-

lem with this model of learning is of course that it presents a very narrow view of the learner's interaction with the situation and with the characteristics of what it is he is trying to learn. It abstracts the knowledge away from its complementary relationship with the real world. 'Psychology applied' may not offer much more than 'linguistics applied.' However, the model does satisfy an important design need. It handles the problem of accountability very well. It is unrealistic to ask teachers who may not be particularly proficient at the language they are teaching to adopt approaches which are less explicitly defined. In terms of implementation, the most explicit and detailed skill abstract is the easiest to promote to teachers and policy-makers, and if it offers a universal elixir for all types of learning failure, so much the better. For all the criticism though, we cannot ignore the evidence that some recovery procedures for slow-learners or low-proficiency students do work; I can refer here to the major work by Marie Clay in New Zealand on the early detection and remediation of reading problems (Clay 1979).

But we need to go further: exactly what sort of learning do current theories of 'communicative teaching' promote, and is this what our pupils need? Saville-Troike's recent study in *TESOL Quarterly* challenged some of the basic premises on which a lot of current language teaching theories are based. Our emphasis on social interaction does not appear to correlate with academic achievement in second language learning. What mattered most in her study were vocabulary knowledge, and the opportunity to develop conceptual understanding in L1 (1984). This supports the Canadian immersion work of Cummins, Swain, and Genesee (Swain & Cummins forthcoming; Genesee 1976, 1983). The option of L1 maintenance and promotion in school situations is one that is simply not available to many curriculum developers. Instead it seems to me we must attempt to devise coherent and consistent programmes which make cognitive development possible through L2, which link the target language to this development in creative ways, and which promote the skills of literacy for children whose prior experiences of literacy may be very limited.

The movement must be coherent though, and by this I mean it should not violate the criteria which I feel are the most significant in the procedural or 'task approach.' These criteria are that the language is acquired through active deployment, and that consequently the programme for literacy should begin with the pupil's utterances; that the interactions of the class and the teacher should be directed above all to meanings, whether

these result from problem-solving or information-gap activities, or whether they are based on procedures which encourage pupils to express thoughts *about experiences they have had or are having. Our strategy then was to* try to devise a curriculum package based on a coherent model of language learning and 'teachability,' which showed consistency in terms of its direction towards the mastery of broad skill areas related to literacy and academic achievement in school.

There remains the problem of selection, sampling, and overlap. If the task syllabus replaces the inventory syllabus as the core of the language programme it is fair to subject the criteria of task selection to a fairly rigorous scrutiny to see that they do provide for a balanced diet of activities: I suspect that a tyranny of forms, timetables, information gaps, and reasoning tests could lead to as great a case of pedagogical indigestion as the structural and situational inventories they are intended to replace.

I have emphasised the need for instruction which moves consistently towards mastery of the skills of literacy, however broadly, because the pupils we tested over a range of instruments and procedures seemed weakest in these areas. Generally interpersonal communication was not a major problem. Besides reviewing the basic work on communicative, functional-notional, and procedural materials which was available to us, we looked at the Language-Experience model of early reading instruction (Stauffer 1980; van Allen 1976) and produced kits of experience, activity, or task cards which were to form the core of the curriculum package. This was supplemented by a reading programme which was built around high-interest stories, as close to natural language texts as we were able to produce within reasonable control frames for vocabulary and language structure, and the fact that we were very new to the art of writing children's literature when we began. Titles which proved especially popular or attractive to the children were expanded into 'Enlarged Books' for 'Shared Book' lessons. The kits also contained large sets of bright pictures which we intended to act as stimulus materials for class discussions and activities, and sets of worksheets which are based on planned school-trips, outings, or class activities. As far as possible we have avoided set-piece language 'charts' in favour of a wider experience base so that the teacher may to some extent bring images of the real world into the classroom. And, as no curriculum package in this age can be free of them, we designed workbooks which covered functional language use: with forms, charts, timetables, etc. in a moderately controlled pattern of grammatical item

presentation. Other workbooks covered discrete listening skills, and vocabulary skills.

The programme begins with the Language-Experience cards, though. There are 100 of these designed for each year level of the programme. They are grouped into 4 thematic kits along with the readers, picture cards and worksheets that relate to the theme. Each card is organised around a procedure which we intend should link the various concepts on which it is based with utterances in the target language. The procedure is based broadly on language experience approach patterns: pupils are exposed to some real experience; the experience is talked about widely to bring out conceptual and emotional responses pupils may have towards it; the pupils create a written text on the basis of this oral production, and usually illustrate the text; finally the written text or texts are used as the basis of an early reading programme. In L1 reading situations this procedure can develop around any activity, experience, or object that stimulates sufficient interest in the pupils to serve as the centre of the lesson. Our procedure has been adapted and formalised for two reasons. First we wanted to create authentic reading tasks in the activities themselves for pupils who were able to read the sets of instructions without too much assistance. Second, few teachers in second language classes are likely to be familiar with either the general approach or the type of language interactions we intended to come from the approach. A final constraint grew from the requirements of publishing. We had to produce a programme that could be packaged and given to schools in a form that would last for several years, and serve several different teachers and classes. Consequently, where a normal language-experience set of ideas for a teacher may simply list activities which have been found to work in classes, our cards listed what is required and how the activity is to be done, in considerable detail.

Step One: The Activity

In the initial kits for the programme, the activities are dominated by 'hands-on' experiences which involve pupils making things, following simple directions and diagrams, and trying out their creations in some simple experimental or trial situation. We have concentrated on this type of activity at the early stage of the programme, which is aimed at the first months of the Primary 4 year in Singapore, because of the value it has for the development of coordination and general cognitive growth. Most of the activities are matched with written instructions of a fairly simple kind. As

I noted above, this allows the better students to read with a genuine purpose in mind; namely to produce the creation that is sought, by following step by step instructions. The written instructions are accompanied by detailed diagrams which show each of the articles required to complete the task, and within the limits of the available space, show how the object is made or the activity completed. Although probably more thorough than is found in most children's art and craft books, the pattern here is intended to give clear examples of the meaningful link between language clues and other directions such as pictures or diagrams. In trials, this link proved one of the most effective and helpful for pupils, both in achieving the tasks that had been set, and in following the instructions. However, different approaches have been used in various cards. In some the visual clues alone are given, and later concept questions direct children to explanations of the types of problems this limited information display caused. In others, a reduced number of visuals puts more pressure on the pupil's understanding of the language of instructions as a particular type of language use. A considerable variety of activities is being incorporated into these designs: from the simpler hands-on activities, to information-gap problems, or problems of inductive reasoning. The suggested teaching strategies are left open here. Some activities suit individuals; some are designed for group work; and some can be best used in class interactions.

Step Two: The Talk-about Phase

An oral phase has been deliberately structured into each of the activity cards. This is to partly ensure that the potential to use language is not lost, and to prevent the activities becoming well-packaged arts and craft sets. It seems to us that the phase is important for at least three reasons:

First, it allows the teacher to assess the linguistic performance of the pupils, and to provide new items of language which they need to complete the activity or to extend their functional range in a deliberate way. The focus is of course on the activity and how it is expressed, not the form in which the pupil expresses his meanings.

Second, it allows the teacher to assess the conceptual development of the child in general terms in relation to the task.

Finally, it allows the teacher to communicate task-related meanings she may want to share about the experience. This is a vital part of the interaction. The teacher provides a model of the language which can be linked to the task and to the concepts on which it may be based.

The oral phase of the activity is found under the *Talk About* section of each LEA card. Each card carries several discussion questions which cover general concepts and problems, specific questions which relate to the activity itself, and sometimes questions which may elicit structural items of high-surrender value in following writing tasks.

Step Three: Building up a Text

The key in the strategy of these two sections lies in promoting the interaction between the learner and the teacher, and between learners themselves. The programme begins with the student's utterances. In most language classes, even in classes which are taught in task-based procedures, there is a tendency for the slower students to be left behind. In traditional language classes, this may occur because the emphasis on accuracy discourages those for whom it is an unrealistic goal, so they adopt a deliberate strategy of avoidance. In task procedures, there is always a danger that the task itself takes over. Class and pupils are so keen to resolve the problem, that the underlying reason for the problem is ignored. Poorer pupils are likely to let their more fluent neighbours get on with it, thus reducing the opportunities they have to deploy their existing skills and try out their intuitions about the language. This is more a factor of class management than task design, but it lies behind the phase we have called 'Building up a text.' This phase does not appear on the cards themselves, but teachers are encouraged to focus more attention on how meanings are communicated; to focus on the form of the textual characteristics of each pupil's utterances. We have just begun to look more closely at this phase of language teaching using the approach, and several questions need to be asked and answered yet. But, in our terms the phase is included to begin to bridge the gap between the immediacy of oral interaction, and the lesser degree of context dependence that is characteristic of writing. Good writing may involve an indirect interaction between the writer and what response he thinks is likely from his reader; the context can be provided by the writer himself in other words. This form of internal dialogue is an important part of information sequencing in writing, and I feel it can be taught. The phase moves beyond the focus on task alone which is characteristic of the Prabhu model. A more explicit focus is established for language as a product, but as one which hopefully grows naturally from the experience.

Step Four: The Write-about Phase

Besides the activities themselves each card is developed around a productive writing task. Wherever possible these have some intrinsic purpose which will be apparent to the pupils. In some cases of course, it has been difficult to avoid the 'exercise' nature of this phase, though in these instances we hope that the immediacy of the activity and the intrinsic importance of the pupil's own response to it will reduce the arbitrariness in the pupil's perception at least. A fair range of different writing activities have been incorporated into the designs including personal narratives outlining how the activity was done; charts to indicate the results of some experiment; instructions for activities the pupils have tried which extend that given on the card; and even imaginative responses or picture stories. How the teacher handles each written task depends on the proficiency of the pupil. Some pupils dictate the text they wish to write to the teacher who copies it down for them so they can trace or copy it out themselves. Others may use a series of kernel phrases which have come out in class discussion, and then add in components of their own which arise from their experience. Better students may gradually model their own texts on past examples, using some vocabulary items we have provided but combining their meanings in a unique way. Throughout the programme, the written activities in the phase are intended to be strongly influenced by the context of the experience. Writing, oral text, and real experience are to interact closely.

Step Five: Illustrating the Text

Children's illustrations of their own work are important in that they provide another mode of expressing the meaning the pupils wish to communicate. Illustrations increase the attractiveness of the work and make it suitable for wall-display. They help motivate the children both to write and to read the texts they have written.

Step Six: Reading the Text

One of the major principles of the language experience approach to early reading is that children will learn to read more effectively if they learn using texts which they have written, which are emotionally significant to them, and which are based on oral language they have mastered. These principles apply here as well. The caption books, display sheets, summary sheets, etc. which have been produced after the pupils have work-

ed through the cards should form the basic material in the class reading programme. Literacy is not magic, mysterious, or unattainable if you have written the book yourself. Success in reading such texts sets the course for success in more advanced literate experiences, and the expectation is success, not inevitable failure.

In keeping with the emphasis on the guided development skills of literacy which mark the most crucial differences between our approach and that of other task designs the project has developed a 'shared book' programme. This approach is intended to give an enormous exposure of books to children whose experiences with them may have been quite limited. It is intended to bring the bedtime story into the classroom. From the set of 240 readers which have been written for the Reading component of the LEAP programme we have selected some of the more popular books for enlarging. These are then read to and with the class, or a small group within the class according to a fairly set procedure. On each teaching session, teachers are advised to read one new book to familiarise the pupils with the story, and for entertainment. Next they are advised to share one story which is familiar to the pupils and to use this for explicit teaching points: be it items of vocabulary, sound-letter regularities, concepts of print, or to check detailed comprehension. To complete the session, teachers are advised to read another familiar story which the children can choose without any particular emphasis on teaching points. The procedure is intended to complement and extend the experiences of initial literacy which children gain from language-experience materials. The procedure has been fairly thoroughly developed in New Zealand and Australia through the work of Don Holdaway (Holdaway 1979). I believe though that the effort we have made to provide a considerable range of materials for the approach, and the inservice work undertaken by the REAP programme (see Sullivan, Chapter VI, PART TWO in this volume) represent the first time the approach has been used consistently and widely in Asia.

The programme we are offering therefore differs in several ways from the task approach which is popular in the TESOL field. Its premises are slightly different from at least the major model. It is premised upon a notion of 'teachability' with the potential for teacher intervention and guidance that this suggests. It suggests that for slow-learners at least the direction in which the activities develop should be towards explicit mastery of broad categories of skills which are part of academic proficiency, although the starting point of the programme must be founded on interpersonal

interaction and the real utterances of the learner. The shared characteristics are the more important: the belief that language is acquired through deployment; that communication of meanings must be the basis of language programmes in the curriculum, and that limitations in the scope of language programmes play no small part in the failure of slow pupils. Collectively, I believe the approach offers the practical synthesis of form, functional and classroom interaction which is widely sought by policy-makers in language education, while a great many fundamental research questions remain: the nature of the language model which the children produce, the detailed process by which classroom interaction leads to initial acquisition of the items of the language, and how this acquisition becomes a factor in competence—linguistic, communicative and academic; these of course will take considerable time and effort.

References

Adjemian, Christian. (1976). On the nature of interlanguage systems. *Language Learning, 26, 2,* 297-320.

Allen, Roach van. (1976). *Language Experiences in Communication.* Boston: Houghton Miflin.

Allwright, R.L. (1979). Language learning through communication practice. In C. Brumfit, C. & K. Johnson, *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Allwright, R.L. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 5, 2,* 156-171.

Allwright, R.L. (1984). Why don't learners learn what teachers teach?—the interaction hypothesis. A paper to IRAAL/BAAL, Dublin.

Allwright, R.L. (1984). Making sense of language instruction. Mimeographed paper.

Bialystok, E., & Sharwood Smith, M. (1985). Interlanguage is not a state of mind: an evaluation of the construct for second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 6, 2,* 101-117.

Bley-Vroman, R. (1983). The comparative fallacy in interlanguage studies: the case of systematicity. *Language Learning, 33, 1,* 1-18.

Brumfit, C.J. (1983). The limits of the language syllabus. Paper to the Regional Seminar on New Trends in Language Syllabus Design, 17-22 April, 1983, RELC.

Brumfit, C.J., & Finocchiaro, M. (1983). *The Functional-Notional Approach from Theory to Practice.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burt, M.K., & Dulay, H. (1980). On acquisition orders. In S. W. Felix (ed.), *Second Language Development: Trends and Issues.* Tubingen: Narr.

Clay, M.M. (1979). *The Early Detection of Reading Difficulties: A Diagnostic Survey*

with Recovery Procedures. Auckland: Heinemann.

Cook, V.J. (1982). Second language acquisition from an interactionist viewpoint. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin-Utrecht*, 6, 93-111.

Cook, V.J. (1985). Chomsky's universal grammar and second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 1, 2-18.

Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (1983). Analysis-by-rhetoric: reading the text or the readers' own projections? A reply to Edelsky et al. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 1, 23-41.

Curriculum Development Institute of Singapore.(1984). *LEAP Language-Arts Programme*, Singapore.

van Ek, J.A. (1977). *The Threshold Level for Modern Language-Learning in Schools*. London: Longman.

Genesee, F. (1976). The role of intelligence in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 26, 2, 267-280.

Genesee, F. (1983). Bilingual education of majority language people: the immersion experiments in review. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 4, 1-46.

Holdaway, Don. (1979). *The Foundations of Literacy*. Auckland: Ashton Scholastic.

Huebner, T. (1979). Order-of-acquisition vs. dynamic paradigm: comparison of method in interlanguage research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 13, 1, 21-28.

Johnson, K. (1982). *Communicative Syllabus Design and Methodology*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Ministry of Education. (1979). *Report on the Ministry of Education 1978*. Singapore.

Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Prabhu, N.S. (1983). Procedural Syllabuses. A paper to Seameo Regional Language Centre Regional Seminar on *New Trends in Language Syllabus Design*.

Regional Institute of English. (1978-1984). *Communication Teaching Project*. Reports and Articles. Bangalore, India.

Sampson, G.P. (1982). Converging evidence for a dialectical model of function and form in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 3, 1, 1-28.

Saville-Troike, M. (1984). What really matters in second language learning for academic achievement? *TESOL Quarterly*, 18, 2, 199-219.

Smith, Frank. (1978). *Understanding Reading*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.

Stauffer, R.G. (1980). *The Language Experience Approach to Reading, 2nd ed.* New York: Harper & Row.

Swain, M., & Cummins, J.(forthcoming). *Bilingualism and Education*. London: Longman.

Tarone, E. (1979). Interlanguage as chameleon. *Language Learning*, 29, 181-191.

Tarone, E. (1982). Systematicity and attention in interlanguage. *Language Learning, 32*, 69-84.

Tarone, E. (1983). On the variability of interlanguage systems. *Applied Linguistics, 4, 2*, 142-163.

Widdowson, H. (1984). *Explorations in Applied Linguistics, 2*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wilkins, D.A. (1976). *Notional Syllabuses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chapter II

How Children Cope with the Sentential Mode of Representation in Writing[1)]

Yuji Mori
National Language Research Institute
Japan

Introduction

When writing, it is noticeable that two distinct aspects of writing are acting simultaneously. On the one hand, visible outward symbols are produced. On the other hand, invisible inner ideas are also produced. Therefore, it can be said that writing consists of two aspects: one is inner, and the other is outer.

There are several ways of constructing a model of the writing process. In one very simple model, shown in Fig. 1, the translator is settled between the inner ideas and outward symbols. Inner ideas flow into the translator and are translated into visible forms; and then the visible forms go outward and are produced on paper.

But this simple model of writing has many difficulties. One of the greatest difficulties is that the model can never account for the discrepancy of what is in one's mind and what is written. One might have such an experience where what is initially planned differs from what is written. Also, one might have some cases where one may not realize the disorder of the ideas until they are jotted down. It can never be said that ideas are simply translated into letters. Ideas naturally affect what is written, and simultaneously what is written has some effect on what is thought.

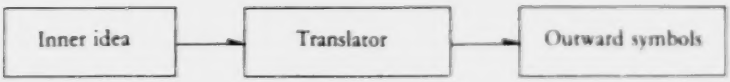

Figure 1 A Simple Model of Writing

The focus of this paper is to consider writing as an activity in which ideas and outward symbols interact with each other. There are two tasks involved. The first task is to present a brief analysis of the theoretical issues of writing as a semiotic activity. And the second task is to discuss several studies concerning how children use the sentential mode to make simple stories.

A Theory of Writing as a Semiotic Activity

It has already been shown that writing has two aspects. One aspect is outward letters or what has been written, and the other is inner ideas or what is to be written. In order to understand writing completely, one must utilize the concept of signs and the theory of writing as a semiotic activity.

Writing can be defined as one of the semiotic activities in which some external signs are used for various purposes (Vygotsky, 1979). There are many kinds of semiotic activities. Counting with the aid of numbers, memorizing with the aid of jotting things down, and operating in an abstract realm with the aid of algebraic signs are all examples of semiotic activities. In the case of counting, numbers are the utilized signs. In using numbers one can count, compare, and record a number of things. Numbers are also a psychological tool. By mastering this tool, mental functions can be changed qualitatively (Wertsch, 1985).

Writing has the same characteristics that counting numbers has. Letters are utilized as signs. With the aid of letters, one can record what happened, inform someone from a distance, control behaviour, etc. Writing can thus be thought of as a semiotic activity. The following three points can be assumed as characteristics of writing as a semiotic activity: (1) writing as a two mode activity, (2) writing as an interactive and circulatory activity, and (3) writing as a composition or sentence-based semiotic activity.

In Fig. 2 the conceptual model of writing as a semiotic activity is illustrated. This model comprises two aspects of the writing activity: one is the outward written symbols, and the other is inner ideas. As seen in Fig. 2, there are two kinds of sub-activity: producing and appreciating; both mediate the inner ideas and outward written symbols. Producing is an activity directed toward written symbols and is the activity which creates visible, concrete, and objective forms that can be operated repeatedly. Appreciating is conversely directed toward inner ideas. In appreciating, one has to read and understand the written symbols that have been written. However, reading the symbols is not equal to appreciating the sym-

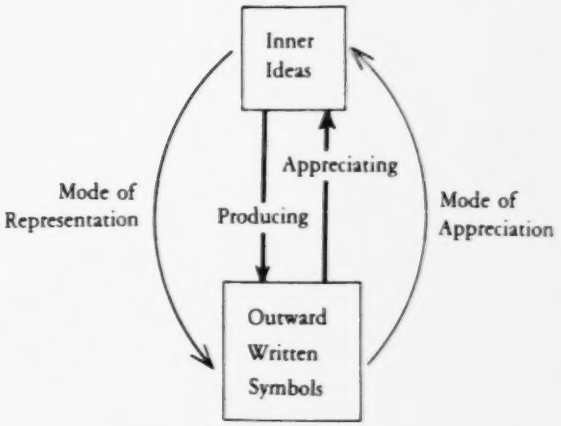

Figure 2 Writing as Semiotic Activity

bols. Appreciating is not only reading and understanding the written words, but comparing symbols with inner ideas and realizing what was thought.

It can be assumed that writing consists of two modes of activity. The two are different in direction. Mode of representation is outward, creating visible written forms. The mode of appreciation is inward, capturing the sense of written signs.

How are the mode of representation and the mode of appreciation related? How can the way in which the two modes work be characterized?

First, it must be supposed that the modes of representation and the mode of appreciation work interactively. Both the inner ideas and the outward symbols affect each other. In order to represent inner ideas, a writer produces outward symbols. In this producing process an inner idea has effects on the construction of written symbols. Once the writer has made outward symbols, he must look at what he wrote and search for any discrepancy between the writing and what he intended to write. If there is any, he then revises his writings. Sometimes written symbols may alter the writer's inner ideas. By means of the written symbols the writer's vague ideas are shaped, and thus he can better appreciate what his thoughts are.

Second, it is assumed that the two modes of writing activity work circularly. The mode of representation produces outward symbols. The out-

ward symbols activate the mode of appreciation, which changes the state of inner ideas. But this is not the end of the writing activity. The new state of inner ideas starts the mode of representation working again. The writing activity is an open-ended process where both the two modes operate continually. The revising process reflects this general characteristic of writing as a circular activity.

The last issue to be examined in the theoretical consideration is that writing composition is based on a sentential mode of representation. The two features of writing as a semiotic activity, which have already been examined, are common to other semiotic activities: counting, using schematic diagrams, utilizing algebraic signs, etc. Counting has two modes of activity, outward symbols and inner ideas, which work interactively and circularly.

What is the defining feature of writing composition? It is the sentential mode of representation. If pictures are used for representing inner ideas, it can not be considered writing composition. In writing composition sentences are used to represent inner ideas, and with the aid of outward sentential signs inner ideas can be appreciated more deeply.

Developmental Changes in Sentential Mode of Representation

Problem and Sentence Succession Task

As has been examined theoretically, writing activity could be assumed to be comprised of two aspects. To research the development of writing activity, the following question must be answered: what form of sentences do children use to represent their inner ideas, and how do they make use of what they wrote?

The second question will not be answered here. To answer the second question data are needed on the sentential modes and their developmental changes. First of all the first question must be answered.

There are several kinds of sentences in writing composition which have their own functions: opening sentences, closing sentences, and successive sentences. The function of opening and closing sentences is to initiate and terminate the writing composition. They relate to rhetorical or macrostructural construction of writing composition. In contrast the main function of successive sentences is to maintain the topic of discourse and to expand the statement in order to represent inner ideas.

The problem which will be discussed is the developmental changes of

the sentential mode in successive sentences that children use. A task was constructed that could clarify the problem mentioned above. The Sentence Succession Task, a task in which children are asked to write one sentence after stimulus sentences in order to make a simple story, is an effective task in helping clarify the problem. In the next section some studies are given in which the Sentence Succession Task was used.

(1) Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.
Jiro in-river small fish catch
Jiro caught a small fish in a river.

Example (1) is one example of stimulus sentences used in Moro (1982). Children were asked to make a simple story, writing one successive sentence after the stimulus sentence. Example (2) is an example of a second grader's successive sentence, whereas (3) is a fourth grader's and (4) is a sixth grader's sentence.

(2) Soshite uchi-ni kaetta.
and to-home go-back
And he went home.

(3) Soshite Jiro-wa motto-motto sakana-o tsukamae-mashita.
and Jiro many-more fish catch
And Jiro caught many more fish.

(4) Sono kawa-no mizu-wa yukidokemizu-de totemo tsumetakatta.
that of-river water melting-snow very cold
The water of the river was very cold because of the melting snow.

To clarify the developmental processes of children's sentential mode there must be procedures that can characterize the successive sentences produced by children. First, quantitive differences can be found in the example listed above. Quantitive changes in a sentence itself can not say anything. But examining quantitive measures combined with other measures can be effective.

Second, there are some textual differences. One can read cohesively all pairs of (1)-(2), (1)-(3), and (1)-(4), although the children's sentence successions are different. Developmental changes in cohesiveness can be related

to the development of sentential modes. Thematic construction of cohesiveness and progression of a discourse topic can be a good measure of this textual aspect of the sentential mode of representation.

Third, semantic and conceptual variances can be observed. Examples (2) and (3) are narrative statements that describe the action of some protagonist. Example (4) is also a narrative statement. However, it does not state action but it states the background in which the protagonist is acting. The temporal relation of the stimulus sentence and the succession sentence is also an important characteristic in sentential modes.

Quantitive Changes in Sentence Succession Task

In Moro (1982), six Sentence Succession Tasks were given to about 120 elementary school children in the 2nd, 4th, and 6th grades. 672 successive sentences were evaluated quantitively. The number of letters is the mean number of written symbols in the children's sentences. One pausal unit is comprised of one word and one or two postpositions.[2] The number of propositions is equal to the number of idea units. Successive sentences were divided into simple sentences, and the number of the simple sentences was counted.

As seen in Table 1, older children wrote longer sentences or more complex sentences. Major developmental changes occur between 2nd grade and 4th grade, as evidenced by the number of letters and pausal units. Contrary to the two index numbers of proposition increase as grades linearly increase, 6th graders represent more complex ideas than 4th graders do. But the surface construction in the 6th graders' sentences are not any more complex than the 4th graders'.

Table 1 Quantitive change in sentence succession task after Moro (1982)

Grade	Number of letters	Number of pausal units	Number of propositions
2nd	17.08	4.59	2.32
	(5.97)*	(2.88)	(0.96)
4th	23.89	6.21	2.68
	(10.00)	(2.76)	(1.32)
6th	24.60	6.84	3.12
	(10.48)	(3.00)	(1.36)

*standard deviations

Conceptual Construction

In Sentence Succession Task there are various ways by which children make cohesive sentential representation.

(5) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.
Jiro in-river small fish catch
Jiro caught a small fish in a river.
b. Sore-o baketsu-ni ireta.
it into-bucket put
He put it into the bucket.

(6) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.
b. Jiro-wa motto ookina sakana-o tsukamaetaku-nari-mashita.
Jiro more large fish want-to-catch
Jiro wanted to catch a larger fish.

(7) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.
b. Sono sakana-wa koi-deshita.
that fish is-a-carp
The fish was a carp.

(8) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.
b. Soshitara kawa-no naka-kara ningyo-ga detekita.
then river out-of mermaid emerge
Then a mermaid emerged from the river.

The conceptual construction of the examples given above are diverse. The successive sentences of (5) mentioned the action of Jiro, the actor of the narrative world created by the author. The successive sentences of (6) to (8) do not mention Jiro's action, but the cognition of the actor or state and event of the narrative world is mentioned.

Younger children construct sentences based on action sequence (Moro, 1982). Fig. 3 shows the developmental change in the conceptual construction of successive sentences. 672 successive sentences were categorized into action and non-action sentences. Younger children, whose writing ability and sentential representation is inferior to older children, were more likely to depend on action sequence. It can be said that action-based con-

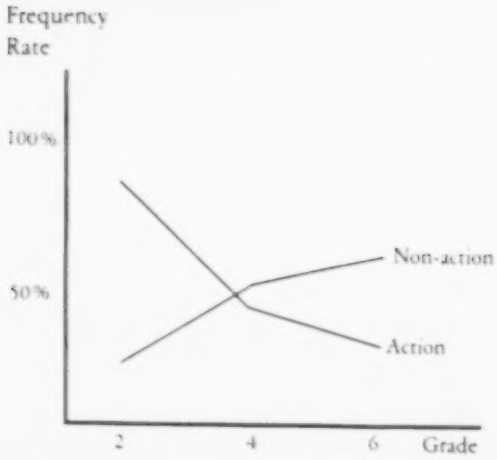

Figure 3 Developmental Change in Conceptual Construction

struction is more elementary. Therefore, it may be easier for younger children to make sentence sequence cohesive using action construction.

Cohesive and Thematic Construction

Sentence Succession Task in Moto (1982; 1984) revealed that developmental changes in the sentential mode can be characterized by cohesive and thematic construction. First, cohesive ties of younger children's sentences are different from older children's. Fig. 4 shows the developmental changes in use of cohesive ties. 2nd graders use ellipsis most frequently, but 4th graders use noun repetition. Noun repetition is an explicit tie that noun phrases are placed in the surface of sentences.

(9) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta. (2nd grade)
Jiro caught a small fish in a river.
b. Yaite tabeta.
grill eat
He grilled and ate it.

(10) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.

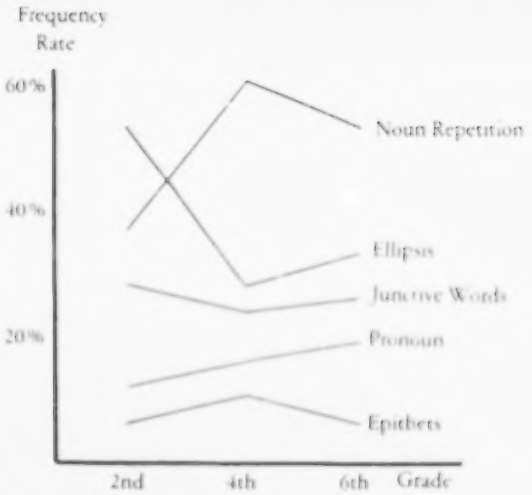

Figure 4 Developmental Change in Cohesive Tie after Moto (1982)

b. Jiro-wa chiisana sakana-o nigashi-mashita.
Jiro small fish set-free
Jiro set the small fish free.

The more complex sentential construction in the older children reflects the difference of textual construction.

Second, thematic construction is another source of variance of sentential construction. In Sentence Succession Task, writers progress in the discourse topic, introducing actors and objects that are not in the stimulus sentences into the narrative world. Moto (1982) evaluated the degree of progression of discourse by the number of new arguments[1] of propositions in successive sentences (Kintsch, 1974). As seen in Table 2, which shows that the distribution of new arguments increases as the grades increase, 4th and 6th graders produce more progressive sentences than 2nd graders do.

Table 2 Distribution of number of new arguments (%)

Grade	Number of New Arguments				
	0	1	2	3	4
2	28.1	56.8	10.1	3.6	1.4
4	16.7	47.8	25.0	8.8	1.7
6	17.1	41.2	29.4	9.6	2.7

Construction of thematic relations also changes developmentally. Themes for the most part of the successive sentences of 2nd graders are the same as the themes that are given in the stimulus sentences (Moro, 1984). Thematic construction such as the theme of successive sentences does not remain the same as the stimulus sentences increase by grade. Moro (1982) also revealed that older children write more complex sentences, including subordinate clauses or insertions that mention the reason of the narrative events and the writer's comments on the narrative world.

Speculation on Development of Sentential Mode of Representation

The general developmental changes in Sentence Succession Task concerns: (1) the dependence on action sequence to complete stories, and (2) the complexity of sentence construction.

Again, the structure of Sentence Succession Task must be considered. The task requires children to make stories by writing cohesive sentences after stimulus sentences. As shown before, the most frequent or basic sentential representation is the utilization of action sequences. Action sequences are a description of an event in a narrative world that a writer created. Development of the sentential mode might be along the process of getting rid of the domination of action sequence.

What is the more advanced sentential mode of representation, if it can be said that action sequence is the more basic? It is hard to answer this question directly, so the changes in complexity must be scrutinized.

Older children write more complex sentences. This developmental change reflects several aspects of sentence construction. First, complex construction reflects the cohesive ties, namely noun repetitions. For Japanese texts, ellipsis can be a context-dependent notion rather than grammatical (Ikegami, 1980). It is usual that themes or subjects of sentences need not

Table 3 Cohesive ties of action sequences

Grade	Cohesive Ties		Number of Action Sequences
	Ellipsis	Noun Repetition	
2	54.9%	37.6	133
4	22.0	68.8	109
6	38.5	50.0	96

be given on the surface of sentences. It may be a special or marked case that a writer gives a theme or subject explicitly. Moro (1982) reanalysed the cohesive ties of sentences that are constructed by action sequence and, it was discovered that action sequences decrease as the grades increase and noun repetition increases. See Table 3.

Second, the complexity of older children's sentences tends to reflect the syntactic construction, which correlates to the cohesive construction mentioned above. Complex syntactic construction is brought about by the use of subordinate clauses and insertion. The following is a 4th grader's sentence. The clause is italicized.

(11) a. Jiro-wa kawa-de chiisana sakana-o tsukamaeta.
Jiro caught a small fish in a river.
b. Jiro-wa *yorokonda-keredo mada chiisainode kawaisou-dakara*
Jiro be-pleased yet small feel-sorry
kawa-e nigashite-yatta.
to-river set-free
Jiro was pleased but he set the fish free because it was very small and he felt sorry for it.

The successive sentence (11)b describing Jiro's action includes two subordinate clauses. One mentioned the fact that Jiro was pleased that he caught a fish. The other subordinate clause states that Jiro thought the fish was very small and he felt sorry for the fish. These subordinate clauses have a dual function. On the one hand they describe Jiro's cognition in the narrative world. On the other hand, they are the writer's voice. In other words, they express the writer's attitude to the narrative world. With the aid of subordinate clauses, writers are able to represent their attitudes to the nar-

rative worlds they create rather than describing the world simply.

Third, complexity in children's sentences reflects the thematic organization of sentences. Non-action sentences can be said to have more complex thematic organization than action sentences have. For non-action sentences, most of the themes of the successive sentences are the themes of the stimulus sentences, while in the action sequences the same themes appear in the stimulus and successive sentence. According to Danes' (1974) term, action sequences are likely to be based on the thematic progression with continuous themes, while non-action sequences are likely to be based on the thematic progression with derived themes. As seen in example (4) a non-action sequence not only depicts the scene or situation of the narrative world, but it represents the writer's attitude to the event he created. Likewise, developmentally non-action sentences increase.

The speculation given above leads to a tentative proposition. It may be concluded that the developmental changes in the sentential mode of representation go along with the differentiation of sentential representation. At earlier stages children write the bare or non-differentiated narrative. In later stages children become able to differentiate their attitude from the narrative world. They can represent their own opinion, attitude, and relation to the narrative world with the aid of a more complex sentential mode of representation in writing.

Summary

We have outlined the theory of writing as a semiotic activity. The theory emphasized that writing is two-fold activity or consists of the mode of representation and the mode of appreciation. The mode of representation is a sub-activity of writing where a writer represents his inner ideas, producing outward symbols. The mode of appreciation also is a sub-activity of writing where a writer appreciates his inner ideas with the aid of external written symbols. According to the theory, writing is an interactive and circular activity where the two sub-activities have effects on each other. The characteristic of writing, which differs from other semiotic activities, is that outward symbols of writing activity are sentential.

Therefore, we discussed several developmental studies of sentential modes which utilized Sentence Succession Tasks. We have found that elementary school children in the 2nd grade produce simply constructed sentences which are based on action sequence. However, 4th and 6th graders produce more complex and progressing sentences than 2nd graders do.

We can suggest that the development of sentential mode could be seen as a process in which children become individuals. Children begin adding their voice or attitude to the mere description of the events and states. In other words, they begin differentiating their own voice from the events and states in the narrative world they created, utilizing more complex sentential modes of representation.

Notes

1) The study was funded by Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research for Encouragement of Young Scientists by Ministry of Education (59710096).

2) Postpositions, in Japanese, Jyoshi (literal translation is auxiliary term), are case marking suffixes in Japanese.

3) Number of new arguments is index of the progression of discourse topic. In Kintsch's (1974) propositional grammar sentences are analyzed and transformed into propositional representations. Propositions consist of a predicate and one or more arguments. Predicates correspond to verbs, adjectives, and adverbs of sentences. Arguments correspond to agents, objects, and locatives of sentences.

References

Danes, F. (1974). Functional sentence perspective and the organization of the text. In F. Danes (Ed.), *Papers on Functional Sentence Perspective*. The Hague: Mouton.

Ikegami, Y. (1980). Linguistic theory and textual cohesion: Some note on Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English*. *Sophia Linguistica: Working papers in Linguistics* (Sophia University), 6, 92-105.

Kintsch, W. (1974). *The representation of meaning in memory*. Hillsdale, N. J.: Earlbaum.

Moro, Y. (1982). Children's text production: An analysis of coherence realization. *Japanese Journal of Educational Psychology, 30*, 29-36.

Moro, Y. (1984). Jido no bunsyo sansyutu: Bunnai-tougo-kouzou to toukatsusei (Children's text production: Syntactic structure and cohesiveness of sentences). Paper presented at the 47th meeting of Japanese Psychological Association.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1979). The instrumental method in psychology. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology*. Armonk, N. Y.: M. E. Sharpe.

Wertsch, J. V. (1985). The semiotic mediation of mental life: L. S. Vygotsky and M. M. Bakhtin. In E. Mertz & R.J. Parmentier (Eds.), *Semiotic mediation: Psychological and sociocultural perspective*. New York: Academic Press.

Chapter III

Cross/Cultural Comparisons of the Cognitive Processes Used by United States, European, and Asian Students in Constructing Text: Focus on Asia

EUNICE SCHMIDT
Seattle Pacific University
U.S.A.

RANDALL SCHMIDT
University of Washington
U.S.A.

Clues to the cognitive processes used in constructing and understanding text may provide some insights into comprehension. Few, if any, cross-national, cross-lingual studies involving students using English as a second language and students from Third World countries using English as the language of instruction, have been done to examine such cognitive processes and the structures used in story understanding and construction of text.

The Purpose of the Study

In an earlier study (Schmidt and Schmidt, 1983), recently translated into Danish by Jansen (Schmidt and Schmidt, 1984), the oral and written text constructions (retell protocols) of United States and Danish middle socio-economic students were compared to examine cultural differences in the cognitive processes and the structures reflected in their understanding of text. New data from Third World countries—Hong Kong and the Philippines are being compared in this study. Data from Zimbabwe is being collected and will be analyzed and added to the study to be reported at another date. In this phase of the study, cognitive processes in writing is based on the data from Denmark, Hong Kong and the United States; while the oral interpretations are based on the data from Denmark, Hong Kong,

the Philippines and the United States.

The Design of the Study

Subjects

The United States students were 12-13 years of age and in grade six; they were randomly selected from a sample of 120 students who had been randomly drawn from nine schools representing 17 elementary schools with a population of 16,826 students in a large suburban Pacific Northwest School District. The Danish students were 13-14 years of age and in Danish grade seven. English was their second language. Danish experts chose these students because they had been exposed to English since grade four. The Philippine students were 12-13 years of age and in grade six in the Philippine schools. The Hong Kong students were 16 years of age and in Form Six (grades 10-11) in the Hong Kong schools. English was the language of instruction for the Philippine and Hong Kong students. Students for the samples were selected from suburban districts and with similar backgrounds under the direction of Dr. Mogens Jansen, Director, Danish Educational Institute for Research, Copenhagen; Dr. Edilberto Dagot, President, Philippine Normal College, Manila; Dr. Jimmy Chan, Educational Research Establishment, Hong Kong; and Bill Louw, Head, English Department, University of Zimbabwe, Harare. The target sample was 15 males and 15 females from each country with a total of approximately 120 students in this phase of the study.

Procedure

Students listened to an audiotape (in 'Danish, Philippine, or Hong Kong English') of "The Rich Man" (Schmidt, 1974), a folktale adapted to a modern setting. "The Rich Man" is well-structured according to the guidelines of Propp (1928), Mandler and Johnson (1974), and Stern (1978) with the text of over 1100 words, so that total recall is impossible and students have to shift from reproduction to construction in their retells. The story language can be described according to *register* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), as (1) *field of discourse:* an old traditional folktale adapted to a modern setting; (2) *mode:* both oral and written language were analyzed; (3) *tenor or appropriateness of the language to the situation:* these students were replicating the story teller's tenor. This is of special interest in this study for the language produced was very close to written language

or the narrative of the story. Oral language analyzed in other situational contexts may be very different. This would account for the few errors in the use of register in this study.

"The Rich Man" (Brief summary of a folktale adapted to a modern setting by Schmidt, 1974)

Once there was a very rich man who lived in a grand mansion. He ate beef and drank champagne. His life would have been perfect, except for two things. On one side of the rich man's house there lived a guitar player. He spent all his days and most of his nights practicing with his amplifiers turned up full volume. He played so very loud that the house shook. (Now, moving through the story.)

On the other side of the rich man's house there lived a singer who sang with a strong, fine voice. The singer practiced hours and hours every day. (The rich man's dilemma is now obvious.)

With the guitar player living in the house on one side, and the singer on the other, the rich man thought, "I can hardly hear myself think. If the two of them would move out of their houses, this would be a quiet neighborhood. Both practiced hour after hour, day after day. Finally the rich man said, "I can't stand it any longer." So he went to see the guitar player. (You may be anticipating his action.) He said, "I want to pay you a large sum of money if you will leave this house and move to another one." (Of course, he also promised to pay the singer well if he would agree to move.)

Summary: The loud musicians met and decided to accept the rich man's money and move—into each other's houses! When the rich man heard the deafening music again, he tried to put his fingers in his ears and uttered one horrified single word, "No!" (Students in all the cultures identified with the story very well and loved it.)

Measuring the Data

The "texts" were divided into meaning units and then a taxonomy, **"Semantic Categories for Analyzing Retells"** (Schmidt, 1983) was applied.

Meaning Unit

In this study a meaning unit is defined as an assertion about the world;

it is a clause as defined by the system network of transitivity (Schmidt, 1983).

"Semantic Categories for Analyzing Retells"

Pearson (1978) used the concepts (1) text-explicit [*read the lines*], (2) text-implicit [*read between the lines*], (3) script-implicit [*read beyond the lines*] to analyze answers to questions. In 1974, Schmidt had designed a "Semantic Complexity Scale" to analyze story retells. The four categories, (1) semantic idea [text-explicit], (2) semantic inference [text-implicit], (3) semantic elaboration [script-implicit] and (4) semantic error were used to analyze "idea units" (meaning units) instead of answers to questions. Revisions of Schmidt's Scale have been used in such studies as Butz (1981), Coffey (1981), Alberda (1982) and Scott (1983). The newest version of the Scale is being used in this study. The terms for the new categories are as follows:

(1) Literal Meanings = 'read the lines'
(2) Inferred Meanings = 'read between the lines'
(3) Elaborated Meanings = 'read beyond the lines'
(4) Intrusions = 'surface structure intrusions'

Meaning units (called 'idea units' in earlier studies) were analyzed according to the four semantic levels (Broad Code) and then according to four or five finely-defined levels with each (called Strict Code).

Scale: Semantic Categories for Analyzing Retells

1. **BROAD CODE: LITERAL MEANINGS**—*'reads the lines,'* explicitly stated in text

STRICT CODE: LITERAL MEANINGS CATEGORIES

1.1 **Verbatim**

Text: *Once there was a very rich man.*
Protocol: Once there was a very rich man.

1.2 **Omit or Add a Word or Words**

Text: *He ate beef and he drank champagne.*
Protocol: And he ate beef and drank champagne.

Text: *Do you want me to sing at your party?*
Protocol: You want me to sing at your party?

Text: *Once there was a very rich man.*
Protocol: Once there was a rich man.

1.3 **Word Order**—may be inverted, but no meaning change

Text: "*Guitar Player. Excuse me!*"
Protocol: "Excuse me, Guitar Player!"

1.4 **Close Synonym for a Word**—no change in meaning

Text: *He tapped the guitar player on the shoulder.*
Protocol: The rich man tapped him on the shoulder.

2. **BROAD CODE: INFERRED MEANINGS**—*reads between the lines*, with at least one evidence of inferring, text-based

STRICT CODE: INFERRED MEANINGS CATEGORIES

2.1 **Subordinate Inference**—less specific, assumes listener or reader 'knows,' partial idea, subset, syntax may be weak, but meaning intact

Text: "*would you agree to move to another house*"
Protocol: "if he would move"

2.2 **Coordinate Inference**—nearly identical in meaning

Text: "*But if I pay you very well, would you agree to move to another house?*"
Protocol: "I'll pay you a great sum of money, if you will move into a different house."

2.3 **Reflective-Integrative** can 'stand back' to give overview, condenses, integrates information

Text: *"Soon they both left their houses and moved into each other's houses."*
Protocol: "They had an idea that they'd just switch houses."

2.4 **Specific-Enhanced** attends to details, idea is enlarged or enhanced, higher level than text, causal relationships

Text: *"Soon they both left their houses and moved into each other's houses."*
Protocol: "The singer decided to move into the guitarist's house and the guitarist decided to move into the singer's house."

2.5 **Confused, Incorrect** inconsistent with the text, changes sequence of events to confuse parts of story, changes meaning, omissions occur which are needed for clarity

Text: *The rich man tried to shout over the music.*
Protocol: The guitar player played so loud that the rich man couldn't hear him.

Text: *So the rich man went home. He put his fingers in his ears and uttered one horrified single word, "NO!" as the music continued as loud as you have ever heard.*
Protocol: The rich man did not have any noise around the neighborhood any more and he lived happily ever after!

3. **BROAD CODE: ELABORATED MEANINGS**—*goes beyond the story;* reveals knowledge the reader brings to the text from own experience, script or data base in reader's head, shows evidence of prior knowledge or creative associations

STRICT CODE: ELABORATED MEANINGS CATEGORIES

3.1 **Elaborates or Expands** a concept—plausible, reasonable, may be inversions or out of sequence, but the meaning is intact

Text: *The guitar player played loudly.*
Protocol: The rock guitarist played with his amps at full volume.

3.2 **Direct Discourse** includes dialogue not implicitly or explicitly stated in the original text, but is consistent with the text, prior elaborations, or a question

Text: *The rich man went home.*
Protocol: "Oh, boy, he is going to be leaving soon!"

Text: *The singer also practiced hour after hour day after day.*
Protocol: "Don't you think you are singing a little bit loud again?"

3.3 **Evidence of a Script or Schema for Stories**—could be off on a tangent, but related concept, in personal terms or experiences

Text: original text
Protocol: And the king (the rich man) thought he had everything made!

Protocol: And the rich man lived happily ever after (not true to text).

Protocol: And so the next moment, the guitar player was hurrying over to the singer's house to tell him of the fortune that had overcome him.

Protocol: So the rich man moved out of his house. And now he's in a lot more trouble than ever. He lived in a big White House and he was President of the U.S. named Nixon!

3.4 **Describes and Interprets Inner Feelings or Reactions**—uses personal interpretation to express emotions in response to text or reacts to characters' feelings, actions, and responses to plot

Text: original text
Protocol: He began to get miserable.

Protocol: The man was sitting overjoyed with what he had done.

Protocol: So he got very irritated.

Protocol: Of course, the rich man was a little bit shocked over this enormous loud sound from both sides.

Protocol: He probably felt really mad.

4. **BROAD CODE: INTRUSIONS**—surface structure intrusions

STRICT CODE: INTRUSIONS CATEGORIES

4.1 **Experiential, Personal Comments**—which intrude and interrupt comprehension

Protocol: "You see."

Protocol: "I'm sorry."

Protocol: "I can't remember."

4.2 **Extensions and Generalizations with No Specific Fit**—do not appear to contribute, "buying thinking time," "dumping ideas"

Protocol: and everything

Protocol: and stuff and things

4.3 **Repetitions**—the same as already stated

Protocol: *So the rich man went home.*

Protocol: So the rich man went home.

4.4 **False Starts**—statements, ideas, words left hanging, starts retell and then changes thinking, opts for different structure

Protocol: and he ... and he ... and he went ... and the rich man went ...

4.5 **External Remarks**—no relationship to text

Protocol: Oh, Fire Drill!

Protocol: Well, that's pretty hard.

The Analysis of the Data

Data Analysis

Comparisons were made between students' retell "texts" according to country, mode, and sex for each of the BROAD CODE and STRICT CODE levels. Means and standard deviations were computed and ANOVAS (analyses of variance) applied to determine significant differences. Then Tukey Tests for Honestly Significant Differences (HSD) were used as needed to analyze the multiple comparisons. Only significant differences which were at the probability level of .05 were reported.

When a story is retold, the stored meaning must be translated back into language. The student must use language effectively to retell the story. The reader may assimilate information into preexisting schema, construct schema to accommodate new ideas, form completely new schema or recall the story language almost verbatim. To assimilate information into preexisting schema, the student draws upon schema which has been acquired from prior experiences with stories. A child who has been told many stories or who has had many stories read to him or her acquires a "sense of story" or structures for story-understanding which helps him or her to retell the story to another listener. If such a schema or story grammar does not exist, the child must reconstruct schema to accommodate the new ideas.

The Results of the Study

Literal Meanings = Reading the Lines

Bartlett (1932) observed that stories were rarely recalled exactly as they were heard (**verbatim**). This was true of the "texts" examined in this study. Relatively few meaning units were classified as at this level. The US, Philippine, and Hong Kong students used more **verbatim** meaning units (using the author's exact words) than the Danish students. The US students also gave more responses which were very near to original text by **omitting or adding** a word. The US students were working in their first language and the Philippine and Hong Kong students were using their language of instruction. It is possible that such familiarity with a language helps one to recall some structures almost verbatim even though this is not frequent in a story text construction of a story of over 1100 words.

Inferred Meanings = Reading Between the Lines

To be in this category, meaning units reflected inferences which were based on text and integrated information across sentences and text. The meaning unit had to reflect at least one evidence of inferring. It appeared to the researcher that the levels in this category present a hierarchy. Each of the four levels appear to be at a higher or more complex level than the prior level.

Subordinate Inference. Meaning units which were classified as **subordinate inference** reflected less specific information than the text, and although inversions occurred or sequences were disrupted, the meaning was intact. Danish "texts" reflected **subordinate inference** more than the texts of the Hong Kong and Philippine students. Hong Kong students generated the fewest meaning units which were classified as **subordinate inferences.** See Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4.

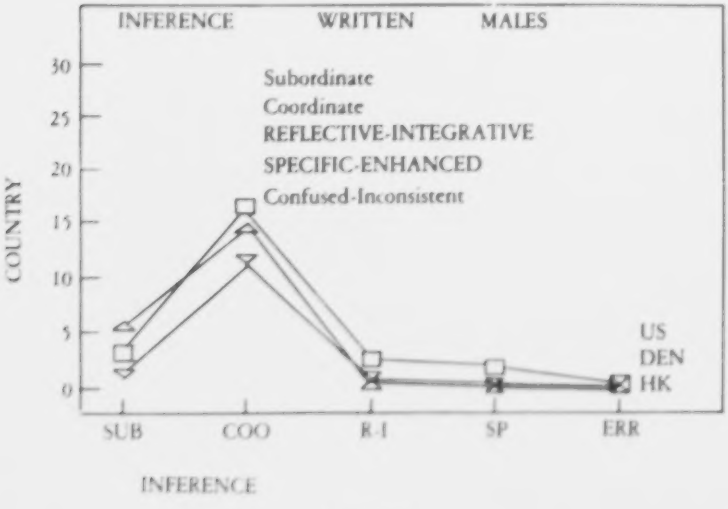

Figure 1

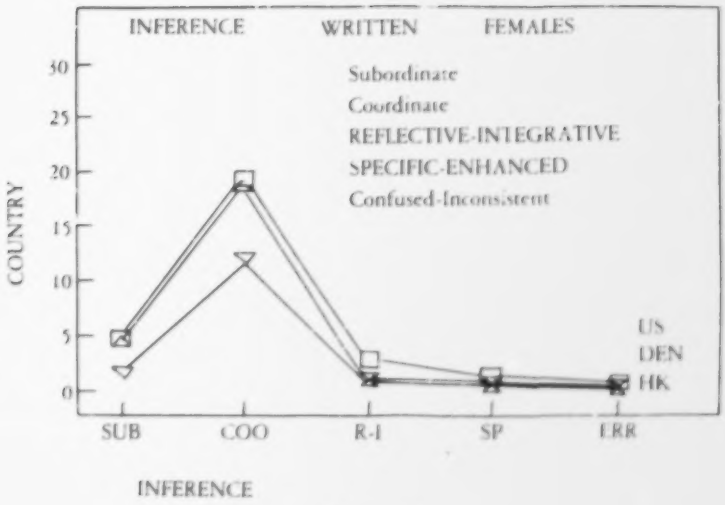

Figure 2

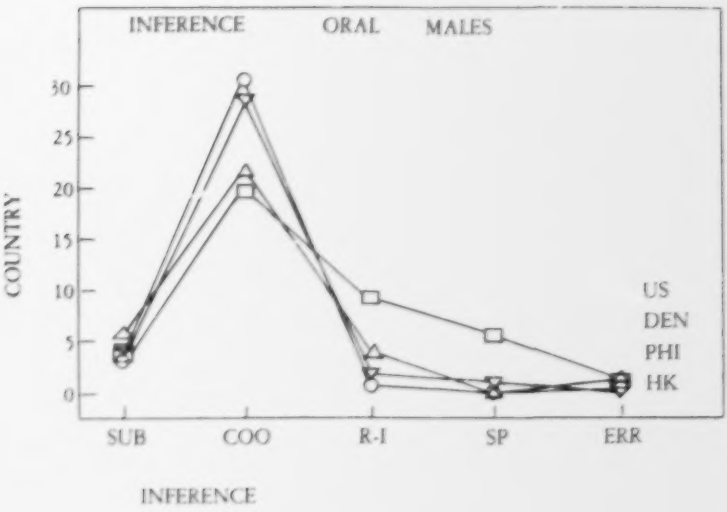

Figure 3

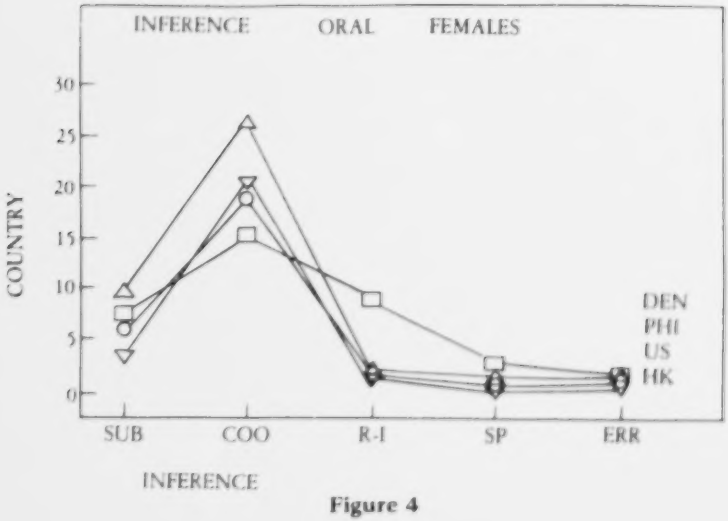

Figure 4

Coordinate Inference. When meaning units reflected information which was nearly identical to the original story, it was called **coordinate inference.** Texts paralleled the meaning of the text very closely. All students used this category more than any other level. This would be expected. There were no significant differences among countries. Storytellers were attempting to "tell" the story true-to-text and "make it a story someone would love to listen to." See Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Reflective-Integrative. To be classified at this level, meaning units had to reflect the students' ability to 'stand back,' to integrate information and give the gist of the story. This appeared to be a higher or more complex level that **Coordinate Inference.** The US students' texts reflected this ability significantly more frequently than the Danish, Philippine, or Hong Kong students. See Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Specific-Enhanced. At this level, ideas appeared to be enlarged or enhanced, attention was given to detail and causal relationships. The language user enhanced the author's words by using language with greater specificity and clarity. Again, it appeared to be a higher or more complex level of inferencing. The US students' texts reflected this ability significantly more frequently than the Danish, Philippine, or Hong Kong students. See Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Confused or Incorrect. Meaning units which showed confusion, inconsistency with text and which changed meanings were classified here. At times, needed information was omitted so that meanings became unclear. There were no significant differences. A few errors occurred for students from all countries, but almost all students understood the story easily. See Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Elaborated Meanings = Reading Beyond the Lines

Elaborated meanings went beyond the text revealing the language user's own experience, script or data base in the reader's head and showed evidence of prior knowledge and creative association. They are not text-based and must *stretch beyond* text.

Elaborates and Expands. Meaning units so classified elaborated or expanded beyond the text. Elaborations were plausible and reasonable, but could introduce unique and unusual ideas beyond the text. The texts of the Hong Kong students reflected the ability to **Elaborate and Expand** more than the texts of the Danish students. The texts of the Philippine students showed a wide variation in ability (d^2=5.49 for U.S. students, 1.91 for Danish, 4.87 for Hong Kong and 8.83 for Philippine students). Very high scores and some low scores occurred among the Philippine students or significant differences with the students from the other countries would have been found. See Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Direct Discourse. This level includes dialogue not implicitly or explicitly stated in the original text, but which is consistent with the text. No significant differences were found. Check Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Script or Schema for Stories. Meaning units at this level reflected the student's ability to draw on story grammar schema. No differences were reflected. All students told the story very well and evidenced strong prior acquaintance with the story genre—the folktale. Check Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Feelings-Reactions Interpreted. To be classified at this level, meaning units must reflect the student's ability to use personal interpretations to express emotions in response to text or to react to the characters' feelings, actions and responses. The Danish texts reflected this level significantly more frequently than US, Philippines, and Hong Kong students' texts. Check Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8.

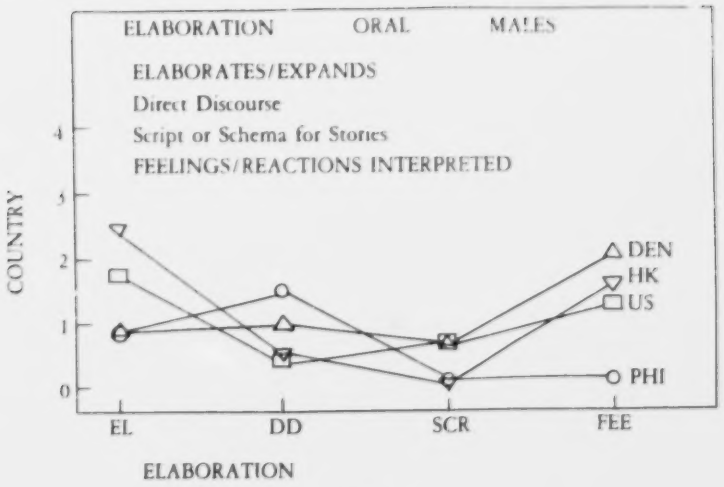

Figure 5

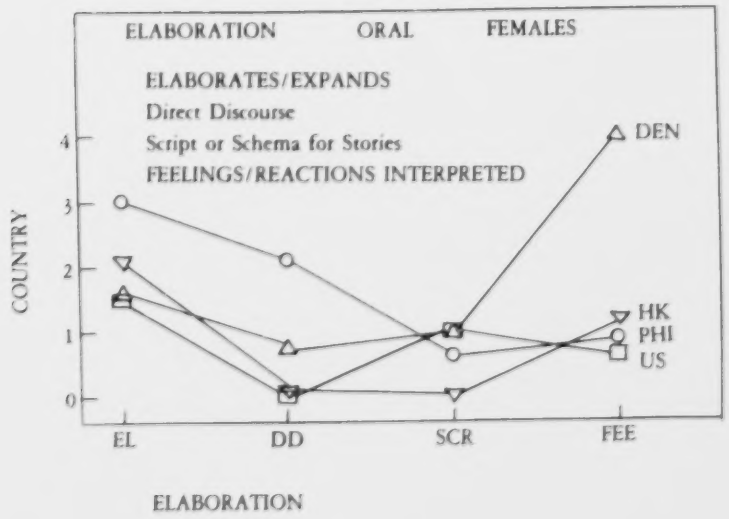

Figure 6

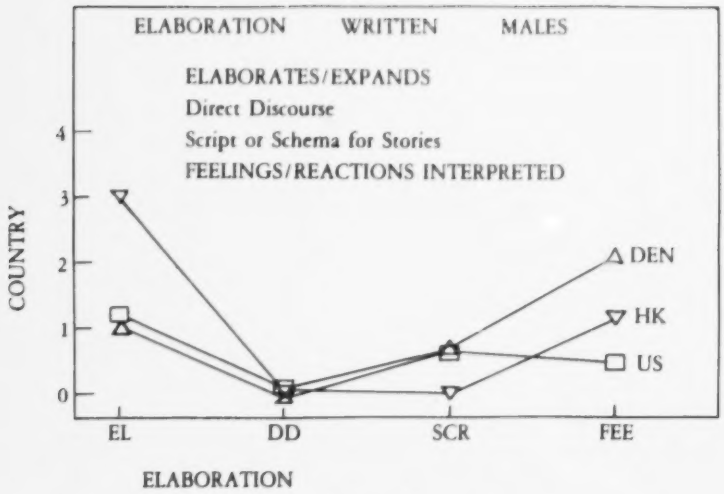

Figure 7

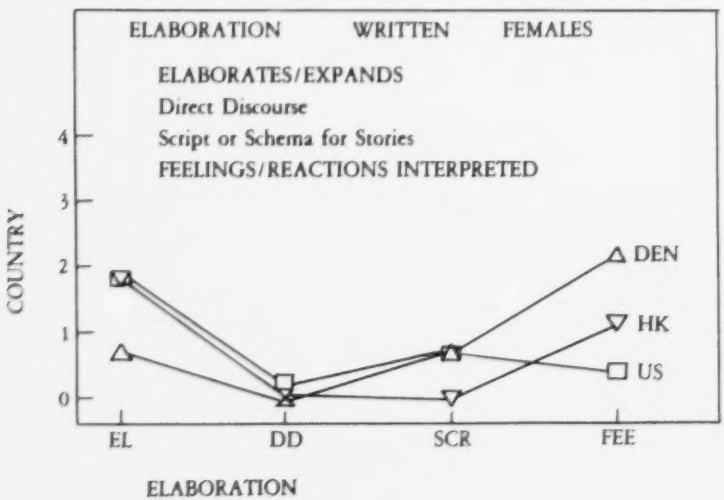

Figure 8

Intrusions

Expressions which intrude and may interfere with comprehension are classified into this category.

Experiential, Personal Comments. Personal statements may intrude and interfere with understanding. US students used such personal comments most frequently. It might be that US students felt more 'at home' using their first language. See Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12.

Generalizations and Extensions. Comments such as *"and everything"* and *"and stuff like that"* do not appear to contribute to the student's understanding of text, but they appear to intrude; perhaps they are uttered to "buy thinking time" or provide a "collective dumping bag" for unclear thoughts. Such units were used by students from all the countries with no significant differences. See Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12.

Repetitions. Repetitions appear to mark confusion for the storyteller or possibly be an attempt to "buy thinking time," in lieu of being able to move concisely to further ideas with clarity and precision. Students from each country used some repetitions and there were no significant differences. See Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12.

False Starts. Students from all countries began ideas, statements or words and then appeared to change their thinking mid-stream and opt for different language structures to express their meanings. **False Starts** are similar to the mazes examined by Loban (1976) in his seminal work on language development. Significantly more **Intrusions** appeared in the language of the Danish students, but this phenomenon would be predictable—for the Danish students were using second language and they were confronted with a less familiar surface structure with which to convey their meanings. See Figures 9, 10, 11 and 12.

Comparison of Written and Oral Texts

Throughout the study students used more meaning units when constructing their texts orally than when they were writing their texts. This would be expected because of the ease of generating speech compared with the added constraints of writing when expressing thoughts. Students generated more oral than written meaning units in every category: **literal meanings, inferred meanings, elaborated meanings and intrusions.**

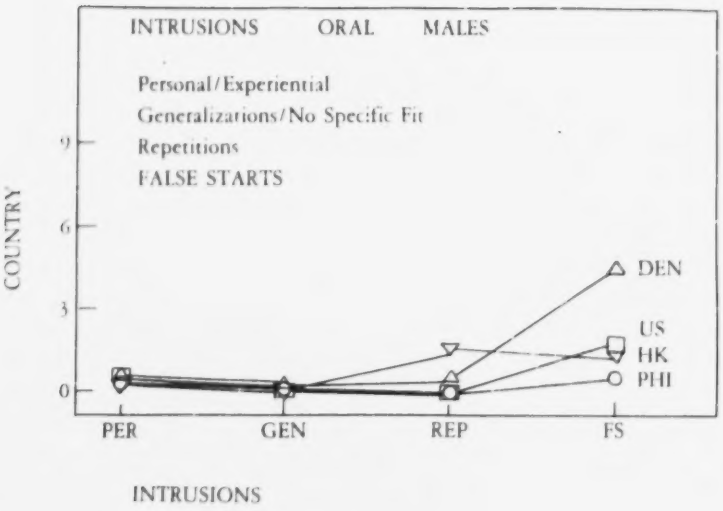

Figure 9

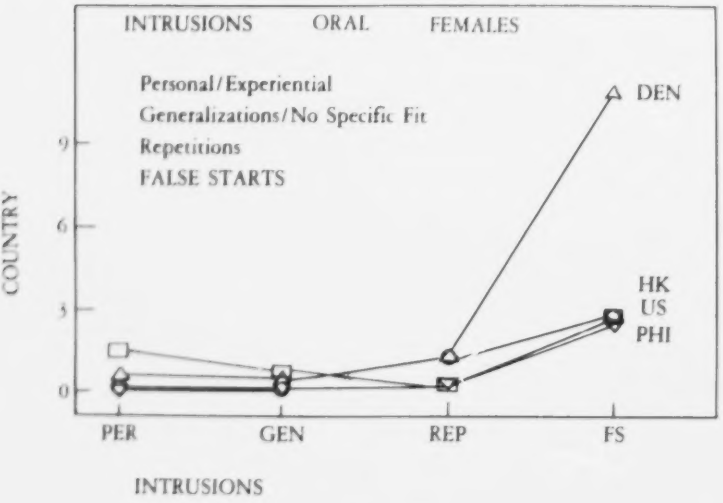

Figure 10

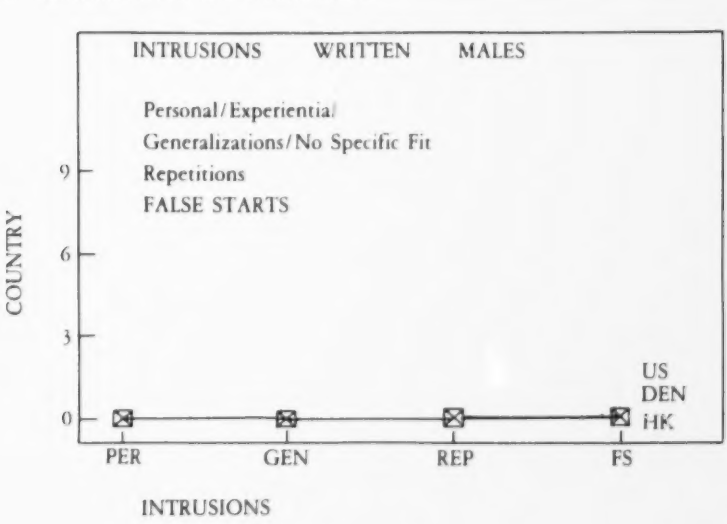

Figure 11

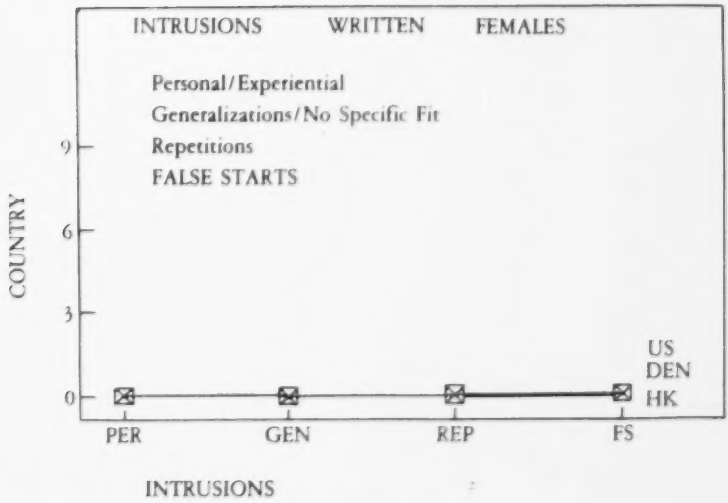

Figure 12

The comparisons of the uses of oral and written language appear to indicate an integrated total function. Compare oral and written language data presented in Figure 1 with 3, 2 with 4, 5 with 7, 6 with 8, 9 with 11, and 10 with 12. Examination of the patterns of means indicates that these distributions come from the same underlying populations. More meaning units were used in oral language than in written language, but the same patterns were evident. Expressing meaning (as reflected in the structures used by students and measured by meaning units) did not appear to be 'bound' to a student's oral or written language. It appeared to indicate something 'deeper' or the **cognitive processes which the student used.** These findings also lend support to Goodman's view of "reading and writing as actually unitary, psycholinguistic processes with diversity within unity in reading and writing" (Goodman, 1984).

Summary and Conclusions

Subtle differences have been found in this study in examining the cognitive processes which students use to understand and generate text. What are some of the factors which might influence such differences? Instructional, cultural, age, experiential, prior knowledge, and language background differences all may contribute.

Instructional and cultural differences

In this study there are findings which cannot be overlooked. They may be artifacts of instruction as well as reflect cultural differences. One such finding described the ability of the US students to use the 'highest' levels of the **Inferred Meanings Category: Reflective-Integrative** and **Specific-Enhanced Inferences.** While such inferencing ability is to be prized, it may be that attention is being drawn to the possibility that US instruction may hold students too closely to text. There is no doubt a contrast in the definition of skills-instruction (more broadly defined in Denmark) and the emphasis it has received in classroom instruction (stressed more specifically in the US). The US students have grown up with a lifetime diet of basal readers, frequently using finely-sequenced skills, carefully measured (easily-measured skills are often lower-level learning) as a staple. Frequently such basal programs may have emphasized narrowly-defined skill sequences, sometimes taught in isolation and without meaning to the child. The question to be faced is have the US students learned

adequately how important it is *to go beyond text*—to seek meaning as most important and to use their prior knowledge, appropriate schemata, language and story structures and the 'knowledge of the world in their heads.' The second important question is have they learned to interpret, react and make personal interpretations of text as well as they have learned to infer from text? Have they learned to **read beyond the lines** as well as to **read between the lines?**

The traditional fare in reading instruction in the US has been 80% literal questions to 20% inferential questions (percentages reported by Hansen and Pearson, 1982) typically found among questions for teacher's use in manuals for basal reading programs. Hansen and Pearson reported that little time is devoted to inferential thinking (their definition of inferential thinking focused on the student's ability to draw upon prior knowledge and overlapped with the distinction made in this study between the **Inferred Meanings** and **Elaborated Meanings** Categories. They emphasized that the difficulty children may have in using script-implicit **(reading beyond the lines** or **Elaborated Meanings)** could stem from a distinction they have drawn between everyday life and life in reading classes. Too often life in school is an artificial environment and very different from real life and the student is not aware of real purposes for reading and the important functional uses for which reading is needed. As one student volunteered, "I didn't know it was O.K. to use my head to answer questions." The research in this study supports their findings and concerns for US students.

Experiential, Age, and 'Language User' Differences

The Hong Kong students were more able to go **beyond the text** to **elaborate and expand** concepts, still plausible, by using their own experiences (script or data base) and use their prior knowledge to creatively associate understandings. The Hong Kong students also generated the fewest meaning units which were classified as **subordinate inferences.** The Hong Kong students were 16 years of age, and this may have influenced the experiences, background knowledge and finesse as a language user, which they could bring to a situation. The US students were 12-13, but English was their first language. The Philippine students were also 12-13 and the Danish students were 13-14. The Philippine students also used many **elaborated and expanded** concepts; however, because of the large variability in their sample, the differences were not significant in

this study. The Hong Kong students, and many of the Philippine students were able to go **beyond the text** and create further understandings, actions and events based on their personal interpretations of the text.

The Danish students were able to go **beyond the text** to describe how the characters in the story would feel and react as they interpreted their actions in the context of understanding their own personal experiences. This ability is subtly different from the ability to **elaborate and expand text.** Jansen (1984) spoke of the emphasis in Danish schools of how teachers involve students personally in interpreting story text. He remarked, "The students are asked so frequently, *'And what do you think? And how would you feel?'* that they almost resent always having to answer the questions!" Their texts reflected their ability to **interpret feelings-reactions** of characters, events and situations. They have learned that text is something to be interpreted rather than remembered.

The language backgrounds of the students

The language backgrounds of the students differed. The US students were using their native language. Danish students were using English as a second language. Hong Kong and Philippine students were using English as the language of instruction. It is possible that it is the student who is learning or using a second language who is truly advantaged, although this is not always realized. As Jansen (1983) analyzed when these data were discussed, *"It could be that they really have one and one-half times the language, for they have their own language and this (the new [second] language)."*

Important Observations

1. When a student is using a second language and the **Intrusions** can be held constant, it becomes possible to focus on the student's attempt to express meanings. Frequently much instruction is focused on concerns with surface structures rather than on the meanings which are being expressed. It is important to look beneath the surface structures, **Intrusions**, to determine what the students in trying 'to mean.' In this study, meanings were reflected in the student's use of **Literal Meanings, Inferred Meanings, and Elaborated Meanings** when story constructions were analyzed using the **Scale: Semantic Categories for Analyzing Retells.**

2. The comparison of the constructing of written and oral text indicated that more meaning units were used in oral constructions than in written constructions. The ease of generating speech in comparison with the constraints of writing could be expected. An important finding is that the comparisons of oral and written language indicated an integrated function. Expressing meaning did not seem to be 'bound' to a student's oral or written language and thus suggested a 'deeper' function or **cognitive processes.** This lends support to a view of reading and writing as unitary, psycholinguistic processes.

3. Students from the four countries being compared evidenced ability to understand text whether they were using English as a second language, as the language of school instruction, or their first language. The **Scale: Semantic Categories for Analyzing Retells** appears to hold promise for teachers and researchers who want to examine the cognitive processes which appear to be used in understanding text. It is a naturalistic research measure which provides considerable in depth information for the examiner. It contrasts with standardized tests which frequently place a student who is using a second language or English as the language of instruction at a disadvantage. Students' "texts" from all countries revealed understanding of the story! It was possible to gain a measure of the student's ability to go beyond repetition of text to begin to understand the student's ability to construct text—even to go beyond parallel construction. The student reflects and integrates concepts and adds specific information which appears to enhance the author's message. In addition, it was possible to analyze the student's ability to interpret a character's motivations, feelings and intentions, and to examine them in the context of personal understanding. It is possible that the taxonomy may provide a new measure of analyzing text. Further study using it certainly appears to be warranted.

References

Bartlett, F.C. (1932). *Remembering*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Butz, G. (1981, May). Comparisons of semantic aspects effecting comprehension of written and oral retells of sixth grade students analyzed at four semantic levels. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Chairperson: Eunice Schmidt, Seattle Pacific University.

Coffey, M.A. (1981, May). Oral and written retells of sixth grade students analyzed at four semantic levels. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Chairperson: Eunice

Schmidt, Seattle Pacific University.

Goodman, K.S. (1984). Unity in reading in *Becoming Readers in a Complex Society*. National Society for the Study of Education, 83rd Yearbook.

Hansen, J., & Pearson, P.D. (1982). An instructional study: improving the inferential comprehension of good and poor fourth-grade readers. Mimeographed copy from Pearson.

Jansen, M. Personal communication. 1982, Dublin, Ireland; 1983 and 1985, Seattle Pacific University, and 1984, Atlanta, USA.

Pearson, P.D. & Johnson, D. (1978). *Teaching reading comprehension*. New York: Holt Rinehart, and Winston.

Schmidt, E. (1981). Early learnings about written language: a comparison of United States and Danish children. In *Full Participation: Proceedings of the Second European Conference on Reading*. Joensuu, Finland.

This research was translated into Danish under the direction of Dr. M. Jansen, Director, Danish Institute for Research and is published as the journal: *LÆSNING: Læese Rapport 6. "Hvad ved skolebegyndere om Bøbøgernes sprog?"* Copenhagen, Denmark, 1982.

Schmidt, E., & Schmidt, R. (1983). A comparison of Danish and U.S. students' understanding of text: a cross-cultural, cross-lingual study. Published in *How teachers learn to teach reading: Lesen und lehrerbildung in Europa: Proceedings of the Third European Conference on Reading*. Vienna, Austria.

Schmidt, E., & Schmidt, R. (1984). *LÆSNING: Læse Rapport 10. "Hvad vil det sige at læse - og forstå? En sammenligning mellem danske og amerikanske elevers forståelse of tekst."* Translated into Danish by Dr. M. Jansen, Director, Danish Institute for Research.

Scott, M. H. (1983). A Study of third grade students understanding of text. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Chairperson: Eunice Schmidt, Seattle Pacific University.

PART TWO

Chapter IV

The Relationships among Alternative Measures of Reading Comprehension in Learning Disabled Students

Lynn Z. Lang
Virginia Public Schools
The Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
U.S.A.

Comprehending is the core of the reading process. Therefore, measuring a reader's strengths and deficiencies in comprehending can become an indispensable teaching tool. In the broad sense, such a determination is made by "assessment," which is described in the literature as the "process of determining the behaviors ... that a student does or does not possess" (Sedlak, Steppe-Jones, & Sedlak, 1982, p. 263) for the purpose of deciding how best to teach.

The assessment of reading comprehension behaviors in the classroom has not been an easy task. For the most part, this is so because the construct of comprehension is not clearly defined. Indeed, consensus among reading experts on a model of reading which defines and describes the interrelationships between the reader and all aspects of the reading process, not just comprehending, is still not apparent (Farr, 1982). Until that consensus is reached, teacher knowledge of the best ways to measure and to develop comprehension in the classroom will be without a theoretical direction and focus.

There is evidence that gains are being made in understanding the nature of comprehension. New knowledge, resulting from a significant amount of research in reading over the last decade, is defining the comprehension process as a complex, multi-faceted process involving both linguistic/cognitive aspects of the reader and linguistic/logical factors of the text. In addition, a reader's own background of knowledge and experiences influences comprehension, but more important than any one aspect of the

process is the interaction of these cognitive, linguistic, and prior knowledge factors in theoretical descriptions of how readers construct text meaning.

Scope of the Study

The present study was designed to examine the nature of relationships between and among the results of two product measures of comprehension (questioning, retelling) and two process indicators of comprehension (cloze, miscue) in data collected from a sample of 48 male students who were identified as learning disabled.

The study posed two questions, one concerning how nearly equal were subjects' scores on four alternative measures of reading comprehension (questioning, retelling, cloze, and miscue) and the second concerning relationships observed between these four alternative measures and a standardized test.

To answer the first question, three possible patterns of relationship between alternative comprehension measures were proposed as different models of comprehension assessment. Model I suggested high correlation ($r \geq .70$) among the four alternative measures. Model II proposed little if any correlation among the four alternative measures ($r \leq .30$). Model III postulated a higher average correlation within alternative assessment categories ($\geq .70$) than across alternative assessment categories ($\leq .30$). A correlational analysis of subjects' scores on alternative comprehension measures was done to determine to what extent relationships were supportive of any of the three models of comprehension assessment.

To answer the second question, multiple correlation procedures were used to determine how subjects' scores on the questioning, retelling, cloze and miscue assessments were similar to their scores on a standardized test.

Significance of the Study

Overall, the primary importance of this study concerned the implications that could be drawn from the data for assessing students' comprehension in the classroom. To this end, the study generated an empirical basis for focusing teachers' attention on the advantages of using a "corroborative framework" (Page & Vacca, 1979, p. 51) of assessments in evaluating students' comprehension. Operationally, a framework consisting of different types of comprehension assessment would give learning disabled

individuals a chance to express their understanding of text on *alternatives* to the standardized test. In the same way, use of different assessments would encourage teachers to evaluate different kinds of reader behaviors that may result from alternative indicators of comprehension.

Without a study such as this one and others like it dealing with relationships among various comprehension assessments, it is likely that teachers might continue to be largely uninformed about alternative indicators of comprehension, their similarities, their differences, their strengths, their limitations, and the extent to which each indicator might or might not contribute different information to the profile of a learning disabled student's comprehension performance. Knowledge of assessment alternatives is critical to understanding comprehension, to offering LD students options for expressing their comprehension, and to carrying out instructional planning in reading at any level.

Summary of Procedures

Forty-eight learning disabled males comprised the sample in this study. Subjects were either seventh or eighth graders at one of three intermediate schools in a school district located in metropolitan Washington, D.C. The mean Full Scale WISC (Wechsler, 1974) IQ score for the sample was within the average range of intellectual functioning and most subjects' reading grade levels as measured by a standardized test were within the third-to-fifth grade level range.

During the four month data collection phase of the study, subjects read four narrative passages, two each on two successive days. Each passage had been adapted by the researcher from commercially available comprehension practice materials. The overall difficulty level, length, and interest level of each passage were similar.

Passage comprehension was assessed by either a questioning, retelling, cloze, and miscue assessment, which had also been developed by the researcher. Questioning and retelling assessments were considered product measures of comprehension, while cloze and miscue assessments were considered process measures of comprehension. The order of administration of test passages and of assessment conditions was systematically varied to avoid serial effects as well as to avoid the confounding of passage and assessment condition. In addition, each subject took a group-administered standardized test of reading achievement near the end of the data collection

period. Data were collected from January to May, 1982.

Summary of Findings

Hypothesis one: the observed data will reflect one of three possible patterns of relationship among four indicators of comprehension thereby supporting a specific model of comprehension assessment. Data analysis(see Tables 1-3) showed that for this sample of seventh and eighth grade learning disabled boys, no postulated model of comprehension assessment was completely supported by the relationships observed.

Table 1 Zero-order correlations of alternative comprehension assessments (N = 48)

	SLQS[a]	SRSTOTS[b]	SCS[c]	CTOTORAL[d]	GMRC[e]
SLQS	1.0000	.2996*	.4773*	.3285*	.3147*
	(48)	(48)	(48)	(48)	(48)
	P = *****	P = .019	P = .000	P = .011	P = .015
SRSTOTS		1.0000	−.0012	−.0252	.2542*
		(48)	(48)	(48)	(48)
		P = *****	P = .497	P = .432	P = .041
SCS			1.0000	.4625*	.5366*
			(48)	(48)	(48)
			P = *****	P = .000	P = .000
CTOTORAL				1.0000	.5815*
				(48)	(48)
				P = *****	P = .000
GMRC					1.0000
					(48)
					P = *****

[a]Questioning Assessment
[b]Retelling Assessment
[c]Cloze Assessment
[d]Miscue Assessment
[e]Standardized Test
*p<.05

Table 2 Summary of relationships observed within comprehension assessment categories

Assessment Category	r	p	Coefficient of Determination	Percent of Variance Explained
Within Product Measures:				
Questioning-Retelling	.2996	0.019	0.0987	Approx. 10%
Within Process Measures:				
Cloze-Miscue	.4625	0.000	0.2139	Approx. 21%

Table 3 Summary of relationships observed across comprehension assessment categories

	Process Measures							
	Cloze				Miscue			
Product Measures	r	p	Coeff. Deter.	% Var. Expl.	r	p	Coeff. Deter.	% Var. Expl.
Questioning	.4773	0.000	0.2278	Approx. 23%	.3285	0.011	0.1079	Approx. 11%
Retelling	−0.0012	0.497	0.000	None	−0.0252	0.432	0.000	None

First, the data were entirely inconsistent with assessment model I, there being no correlation among measures at ≥.70.

Second, the data provided limited support for assessment model II, low relationships among alternative measures of comprehension. Support for model II was considered limited because half of the six possible relation-

ships observed in the data (questioning-retelling; retelling-cloze; retelling-miscue) were within the hypothesized range of ≤.30, but the remaining half of the six possible relationships observed in the data (questioning-cloze; questioning-miscue; miscue-cloze) were greater than the hypothesized criterion for low relationships. Nonetheless, none of the three relationships greater than .30 exceeded a magnitude of .50. For this reason, correlations were considered to be representative of a low association among measures overall. In addition, an average of the six possible relationships observed in the data was .2569, well within the hypothesized range describing a low level of association among variables.

Third, the data provided limited support for assessment model III, higher relationships within category of assessment (product, process) than across both categories of assessment. Although an average of correlations within the product and within the process assessment categories was higher than an average of the across-category correlations (.3810 compared to .1949), thus confirming a slight distinction between product and process measures of comprehension, the distinction was diluted by the observation that the highest correlation among alternative indicators of comprehension in the study crossed assessment categories (in the relationship between questioning/product and cloze/process measures). This finding suggests that the questioning (product) task and the cloze (process) task may be measuring some of the same factors, despite their placement in different categories of assessment. Moreover, the low across-category average of correlations among measures resulted from the fact that virtually *any* correlation which involved the retelling measure was either low or nonexistent in this study. When correlations involving retelling were removed from the calculation of the across-category average, the result was .39, almost the same as the within-category average of .38.

Hypothesis two: relationships of alternative measures of comprehension to a standardized test. Regression analysis procedures were applied to determine which of the four alternative comprehension assessments (questioning, retelling, cloze, and miscue) best predicted subjects' performance on a standardized test.

Data analysis(see Table 4) showed that subjects' performance on the miscue, cloze, and retelling assessments (in the order of their contribution to the multiple R) accounted for nearly 50 percent of the variance associated with variance on the standardized measure of comprehension.

Table 4 Step-wise multiple regression of four alternative comprehension assessments on a standardized test of reading comprehension

Step No.	Variable Entered	Mult. R	SE Est.	R^2	R^2 Change	B	SE B	F
1	Miscue	0.58152	7.66811	0.33816	0.33816	0.36269	0.07481	23.504
2	Cloze	0.66520	7.19938	0.42929	0.09112	0.26447	0.07922	11.144
3	Retelling	0.70692	6.81655	0.49974	0.07045	0.26967	0.07504	12.915

Discussion

Comprehension is still not directly observable, regardless of the measurement strategy one uses. It is also a complex process, apparently affected by a myriad of factors, many of which remain unknown. But observing reading behavior is the only option available for decreasing our ignorance of the phenomenon.

In this study, there were many opportunities to speculate about comprehension by considering whether different comprehension assessments, formal and informal, really measured different aspects of comprehension and whether they might be interchangeable with each other in practical use, particularly in evaluating the comprehension of learning disabled students. To this end, a correlational analysis of the relationships observed among and between informal assessments and a standardized test provided a basis for evaluating how subjects' scores varied under different testing conditions.

The analysis of hypothesis one was interesting for the sample of LD students tested in this study for two reasons. First, it would appear from these data that the questioning, retelling, cloze and miscue assessments were largely exclusive of each other as observed in the low relationships among measures, expressed most closely by assessment model II. Although not strong, assessment model II was the only one of the three proposed models of comprehension assessment that was most nearly supported by the data. On the basis of a pattern of low intercorrelations among measures as suggested by assessment model II, the questioning, retelling, cloze and miscue measures investigated in this study cannot be viewed as totally in-

terchangeable for assessing reading comprehension.

Second, the data suggested that distinguishing between measures by category of assessment (product, process) was not as important to measuring comprehension for this group of LD students as were the differences observed between each alternative method of assessment. Methods of assessment used in this study were somewhat different in underlying theory and in task demands. These differences were particularly noticeable for the retelling assessment which produced more variability in subjects' responses than did any of the other three alternative assessments. Clearly, the retelling task seemed to require subjects to engage in comprehending behaviors that were not the same as those required by the questioning, cloze and miscue assessments.

The analysis of hypothesis two was interesting for the sample of LD students tested in this study because even though the multiple R in the regression of alternative assessments on the standardized test was high (.7038), the additive effects of several alternative assessments (each different from the other in theoretical bases, assessment task, and association with other measures) were required to account for only 50 percent of the variance associated with the standardized test. Even though this shared variance among alternative measures and the standardized test was limited, it is reasonable to conclude that especially the miscue and cloze assessments (entered at step one and two of the regression equation) and the standardized test seem to measure many of the same factors involved in comprehending. But because there are strong theoretical bases for the miscue and cloze assessments in explaining the reading process and the standardized test has no such basis, there is also support for avoiding total reliance on the standardized test as a valid measure of comprehension.

A more precise identification of the factors associated with the unaccounted-for variance between the assessments identified in the regression equation and the standardized test requires further investigation. This variance could be the result of a multiplicity of factors including such variables as subjects' expressive language skill, visual format of a comprehension assessment (particularly applicable to cloze), size of text print, length of passage, subjects' distractibility, ability to follow oral and written directions, time pressures, anxiety of the test situation, willingness to risk, self-motivation, and so forth.

By the overall pattern of low relationships observed among alternative comprehension assessments, this study supports the assertion that com-

prehension is a cognitive ability which is more complex than it is unitary. Further, some of the many dimensions of comprehension associated theoretically with the four alternative assessments examined appear to be tapped to some extent by all of them, but not to the extent that one assessment can effectively replace another assessment in evaluating students' abilities. In addition, some moderate relationships among measures suggest that the results of multiple comprehension assessments may corroborate each other somewhat, except when the task requirements of a particular assessment causes an examiner to expect wide variations in a reader's expression of comprehension, as was the case with the retelling assessment in this study. An awareness of potential difficulties in expressing comprehension on certain assessments is especially important in working with identified handicapped students whose learning problems may preclude success with particular assessment tasks.

In brief, differences in assessment task requirements of the various comprehension measures examined in this study coupled with the low relationships observed among these measures in the data tend to confirm the assumption that a reader's comprehension output may be partially a function of how it is measured. This assumption has important implications for practice.

In view of the complexity of comprehension itself, the measures of relationship observed in this study reinforced the view that product as well as process assessments seem to be supplying different and varied information about how a student comprehends and should be employed in the classroom. In the same way, product and process instructional strategies may be useful for developing greater student competency in getting meaning from text.

References

Farr, R., & Tone, B. (1982). *Text analysis and validated modeling of the reading process (1973-1981): implications for reading assessment.* Unpublished manuscript, Indiana University.

Page, W.D., & Vacca, R.T. (1979). Overt indications of reading comprehension: Product and process considerations. In J.D. Harste & R.F. Carety (Eds.), *Monograph in language and reading studies: new perspectives on comprehension.* Bloomington: Indiana University.

Sedlak, R.A., Steppe-Jones, C., & Sedlak, D. (1982). Informal assessment: con-

cepts and practices. In T.L. Miller & E.E. Davis (Eds.), *The mildly handicapped student*. New York: Grune & Stratton.

Wechsler, D. (1974). *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children — Revised*. New York: The Psychological Corporation.

Chapter V

Ten Years of Reading Research: Applications for the Classroom Teacher

STINSON E. WORLEY
Southwest Texas State University
U.S.A.

BRUCE W. MOSSMAN
Southwestern University
U.S.A.

During the past decade reading researchers have been trying to determine which variables are most effective for the teaching of reading. Classroom teachers, on the other hand, have been searching for better methods of teaching reading. Often, these teachers rely on researchers to provide them with ideas which are workable in the classroom. Admittedly, the link between researchers and teachers is a weak one, but it is important that they relate in meaningful ways to each other. In this article we review five important research areas: teacher-student interaction, pacing and content covered, managing instruction, comprehension practices, and reading-writing relationships.

Teacher-Student Interaction

The one word that describes the preponderance of research findings concerning classroom instruction in reading during the last decade is *structure*. Over and over studies point out that the best results are achieved from teacher planned and executed group instruction. Little evidence has been found to support the widely acclaimed independent pupil activities and interest centers of a decade ago.

Brophy (1980), reviewing a large number of studies, suggests:

1. Students who receive much of their instruction from the teacher and

in groups do better than those expected to learn on their own or from each other.

2. Students learn to read most efficiently when teachers use systematic instruction, monitor student responses, and give students feedback about their performance.
3. Student choice of activities yields negative results.
4. Successful teachers are those who maintain a strong academic focus.

Studies seem to imply that students are less engaged in the learning task when working alone. Teachers tend to present more teacher demonstrations, thereby engaging pupils in more academic time than is usually the case in pupil-choice activities.

Studies by Venezky and Winfield (1979) and by Brophy (1980) clearly picture the highly rated reading classroom as "task oriented," "businesslike," a good deal of the time spent on non-academic activities. They also pointed out that it helped to have principals who were achievement and task oriented.

In addition to systematic, teacher directed instruction, many studies have provided specific direction concerning the types of practice provided. Anderson, et al. (1979), after reviewing a large number of positive correlations, stressed the importance of the frequency of practice for achievement gain, particularly practice when the students are correct.

Coker, Lorentz, and Coker (1980) endorsed these first grade findings by determining that narrow questions followed by immediate feedback were positively correlated with reading and math achievement gain. Their Georgia study seemed to suggest that teacher guided practice using factual questions is related to achievement gain.

Pacing and Content Covered

It seems almost axiomatic to state that if you want pupils to learn more, you must teach more; and to teach more, teachers must increase their pace of teaching. Research of recent years substantiates this statement very clearly.

Good and Beckerman (1978) found in their study of sixth-grade classrooms that teachers who moved at a faster pace and covered more content obtained higher achievement. Brophy and Good (in press) presented several reasons why teachers with higher achievement had lessons that moved at a brisker pace:

1. They spent more time introducing new concepts in the developmental part of the lesson and giving instructions for the seatwork assignments.
2. High achieving and faster paced teachers used questions during their explanation rather than relying more on student recitation.
3. More of the questions they asked were direct factual questions likely to produce immediate correct answers.
4. When students were lost and confused, these teachers would reteach the material.
5. Because these teachers were more active during seatwork, they had more teacher-student contacts during seatwork.
6. They gave feedback to students during seatwork.

In summary, teachers who obtain higher achievement from their students place emphasis on instructing students in the key concepts *before* they are required to apply concepts in following assignments. This technique avoids more guessing, higher error rate, and instruction following student errors.

Managing Instruction

Much of the recent research on managing instruction involves "time-on-task." A noted researcher once said, "Any fool knows that time and achievement have to be related, time-on-task has to be related to outcome" (Berliner, 1984). Reid (1984), however, has found that time and achievement are not necessarily related. Time-on-task, she states, "is only related to outcome when the time is used effectively. It is only when teachers are effective that the amount of instructional time in reading is correlated to achievement of pupils."

A cross section of studies suggests that specific classroom management strategies tend to be associated with instructional effectiveness. In general, achievement scores are higher when:

1. Students spend more time working on tasks that are relatively easy for them (Marliave, 1978).
2. Teachers do more ongoing diagnosis and utilize the information in planning instruction (Rupley, 1977).
3. Teachers spend more time on academic instruction (Rosenshine, 1979; Medley, 1977).
4. Teachers or other adults spend more time supervising students as

they are working on independent assignments (Medley, 1977; Tikunoff, et al., 1975).

5. Teacher instruction is teacher centered and student engagement is higher (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974).
6. There is less deviant or disruptive behavior (Medley, 1977).

Also, it is interesting to note that achievement scores generally are lower when:

1. Students are allowed more freedom to choose the activities they will work on (Rosenshine, 1979).
2. Students work independently without direct supervision (Rosenshine, 1979; Stallings, 1975).

These findings imply that effective elementary teachers maintain a task-oriented, but positively supportive, classroom. This type of teaching has been appropriately named by Berliner and Rosenshine (1977) as *directed instruction*.

Reading Comprehension

Many current studies concerned with reading comprehension categorize the tasks of reading comprehension either as literal comprehension or as inferential comprehension. Literal comprehension skills focus mainly on simple recall (memory). It appears that current studies in this area are not as plentiful as those that discuss inferential comprehension strategies.

Every student has his/her own way of remembering and thinking. The teacher's challenge is to identify ways the child comprehends (metacognition), and to select learning activities which foster comprehension ability. Samuels (1983) has listed several internal and external cognitive factors which influence reading comprehension. Some of the factors he includes are intelligence, language of instruction, metacognitive strategies, language facility, motivation, quality of instruction, conventions of print, and clarity of writing style. Although some of these areas may be unfamiliar to classroom teachers, nevertheless they deserve attention.

A survey of recent literature relating to inferential comprehension revealed that:

1. Children in the primary grades do not have well-developed cognitive skills (Hansen, 1981).
2. Students who are poor comprehenders need a structured approach in order to facilitate better comprehension (Schwartz and Sheff,

1975).

3. Readers who use questioning strategies and who reread passages are better readers than those who do not engage in these practices (Babbs and Moe, 1983).
4. Oral reading is an important factor in the development of comprehension rate and level (Burg, 1983).
5. Less able and young readers are not cognizant of the purpose of reading to get meaning from the printed page (Cohen, 1983).

During the past decade many suggestions have been made for improving inferential reading comprehension skills. These skills appear to improve when:

1. Students ask questions about the reading material and interpret the content on the basis of their previous knowledge (Hansen, 1981).
2. The portions of reading materials are reduced to a level which can be facilitated by students (Schwartz and Sheff, 1975).
3. Teachers direct students to use such metacognitive skills as planning, regulating, and monitoring (Babbs and Moe, 1983).
4. Teachers use oral reading as a comprehension tool, especially for low achievers (Burg, 1983).
5. Questions are used during the reading process (Cohen, 1983).

These findings should make classroom teachers aware of research outcomes. These outcomes, then, should influence teachers' approaches for teaching reading comprehension. Of course, there is still much to be researched and learned in this complex area of human learning.

Reading-Writing Relationships

The complex relationship of reading and writing abilities is not new to educators. However, research correlating these variables has been somewhat irregular over the years (Stotsky, 1983). Experienced teachers usually observe that students who excel in reading are good writers, or vice versa. This area of study, therefore, may unlock the door to key factors having an influence on language development and meaning.

Current literature has offered several ideas about relationships that exist between reading and writing. The authors reviewed report that:

1. In daily activities, people use reading much more than they use writing (Goodman and Goodman, 1983).
2. A positive relationship does exist between good readers and good

writers, especially as children grow older (Wilson, 1981; Stotsky, 1983).

3. Free writing does not appear to aid reading comprehension, and reading instruction does not seem to aid free writing (Stotsky, 1983).
4. Prior knowledge is an important factor in the reading-writing process (Squire, 1983).

There are many ways that teachers can integrate reading and writing activities. Knowledgeable authorities in the field have suggested the following:

1. If a teacher uses written work as a way of improving comprehension, better comprehension gains could be expected (Stotsky, 1983).
2. Reading and writing should be taught at the same time in the classroom (Wilson, 1981).
3. Both reading and writing should be taught with meaning or purpose as a central process (Wilson, 1981).
4. Reading and writing skills are better developed if they are planned around personal value for the learner (Goodman and Goodman, 1983).

Researchers are discovering a correlation between reading and writing. However, there is a need for research to delineate those correlational variables of the reading-writing relationship.

Summary

We have attempted, in a brief way, to bring into focus some salient issues in the teaching of reading. Hopefully, this article will help the classroom teacher to think about new instructional approaches, the use of instructional time, ways to improve student-teacher involvement, better ways to improve comprehension, and the content of reading and writing activities.

References

Anderson, L. M., Evertson, C. M., & Brophy, J. E. (1979). An Experimental Study of Effective Teaching in First-Grade Reading Groups. *Elementary School Journal, Vol. 79*, 193-222.

Babbs, Patricia J., & Moe, Alden J. (1983). Metacognition: A Key for Independent Learning from the Text. *The Reading Teacher, Vol. 36*, 422-26.

Berliner, David. (1984). *Effective Teaching for Higher Achievement, Videotape*

Order Form. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.

Berliner, D. C., & Rosenshine, B. V. (1977). The Acquisition of Knowledge in the Classroom. In R. C. Anderson, R. J. Spiro, & W. E. Montague (Eds.), *Schooling and the Acquisition of Knowledge*. Hillsdale, N. J.: Erlbaum.

Brophy, J. (1980). *Recent Research on Teaching*. East Lansing: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University.

Brophy, J., & Good, T. (in press). Teacher Behavior and Student Learning. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Third Handbook of *Research on Teaching*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Burg, Paul D. (1983). Comprehension and Rate: Oral vs. Silent Reading for Low Achievers. *Reading Horizons, Vol. 23*, 201-06.

Cohen, Ruth. (1983). Self-Generated Questions as an Aid to Reading Comprehension. *The Reading Teacher, Vol. 36*. 770-75.

Coker, H., Lorentz, C. W., & Coker, J. (1980). *Teacher Behavior and Student Outcomes in the Georgia Study*. Paper presented to the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Boston.

Dunkin, M. J., & Biddle, B. J. (1974). *The Study of Teaching*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Good, T. L., & Beckerman, T. M. (1978). Time on Task: A Naturalistic Study in Sixth Grade Classrooms. *Elementary School Journal, Vol. 78*, 192-201.

Goodman, Kenneth, & Goodman, Yetta. (1983). Reading Writing Relationships: Pragmatic Functions. *Language Arts, Vol. 60*, 590-99.

Hansen, Jane. (1981). An Inferential Comprehension Strategy for Use with Primary Grade Children. *The Reading Teacher, Vol. 34*, 6, 665-69.

Marliave, R. S. (1978). Academic Learning Time and Engagement: The Validation of a Measure of Ongoing Student Engagement and Task Difficulty. In C. W. Fischer, et al., *Selected Findings from Phase IIIB*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Medley, D.M. (1977). *Teacher Competence and Teacher Effectiveness: A Review of Process-Product Research*. Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education.

Reid, Ethna R. (1984, November-December). The Value of Teaching Scripts or Directives in Teaching. *The Reader Newsletter* (Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction, Salt Lake City).

Rosenshine, B. V. (1979). Content, Time, & Direct Instruction. In P. L. Peterson & H. J. Wallberg (Eds.), *Research on Teaching: Concepts, Findings and Implications*. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corp.

Rupley, W. H. (1977). Stability of Teacher Effects on Pupil's Reading Achievement Over a Two Year Period and Its Relation to Instructional Emphasis. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Reading: Theory, Research and Practice* (26th Yearbook of the National Reading Conference).

Samuels, S. Jay. (1983). A Cognitive Approach to Factors Influencing Comprehension. *The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 76,* 261-66.

Schwartz, Elaine, & Sheff, Alice. (1975). Student Involvement in Questioning for Comprehension. *The Reading Teacher, Vol. 29,* 150-54.

Squire, James R. (1983). Composing and Comprehending: Two Sides of the Same Basic Process. *Language Arts, Vol. 60,* 581-89.

Stallings, J. (1975). *Implementation and Child Effects of Teaching Practices in Follow Through Classrooms. Monographs of the Society for Research in Childhood Development, Vol. 40* (Serial No. 163).

Stotsky, Sandra. (1983). Research on Reading/Writing Relationships: A Synthesis and Suggested Directions. *Language Arts, Vol. 60,* 627-42.

Tikunoff, W. J., Berliner, D. C., & Rist, R. C. (1975). *Special Study A: An Ethnographic Study of the Forty Classrooms of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study Known Sample (Tech. Rep. 75-10-5).* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Venezky, R. L., & Winfield, L. (1979, August). *Schools That Succeed Beyond Expectations in Teaching Reading* (Technical Report No. 1). Newark, DE: Department of Educational Studies, University of Delaware.

Wilson, Marilyn J. (1981). A Review of Recent Research on the Integration of Reading and Writing. *The Reading Teacher, Vol. 34,* 896-901.

Chapter VI

Influencing Change in Language Teaching Strategies through Inservice Education

CLAUDIA SULLIVAN
Institute of Education
Singapore

Introduction

Once an inadequacy in teaching strategies has been identified it is necessary to develop a teacher training programme to effect the desired change. This paper describes briefly a traditional inservice course which attempted to achieve such change and, in more detail, an alternative inservice programme presently in its trial implementation stage. Characteristics of this programme will be compared to characteristics identified as common to successful educational programmes in the United States and results thus far will be discussed.

Background

Since 1979 a number of significant events have taken place in Singapore that have affected the teaching of English. In that year the New Education System introduced a bilingual policy which required proficiency in oral and written English and either Malay, Mandarin, or Tamil, the other three of Singapore's four national languages. This emphasis on the English medium of instruction was due primarily to the increased importance to Singapore of international trade, most of which is conducted in English.

An indication of the trend toward English can be seen in the change from 1960 when only 49% of the pupils were registered for English stream instruction. By 1980 the percentage had increased to 86% and by 1982 90% were registered for English medium classes (Tay, 1982) despite the fact that for the majority, English was not their mother tongue. One of the main features of the New Education System was the increased concern for language learning. It states that "the first three years of primary educa-

tion will concentrate on language learning (particularly English)...to give the pupils a strong foundation for the learning of content..." (Ministry of Education, 1979) in the later primary years.

As a follow up to the New Education System implementation, an exploratory study was conducted by the Institute of Education to determine the reading abilities of primary 1-3 children and the types of reading instruction provided. The information gathered was to be used to improve preservice and inservice reading methodology courses at the Institute in order to improve reading instruction in the primary schools (Ng, 1980). From 36 observations of reading lessons, 36 teacher interviews, and test data from 108 children representing 12 primary schools, Ng concluded that while the teachers observed were not knowledgeable in reading methodology they did show a willingness to learn. The pupils' test scores showed reading accuracy only somewhat below British norms but their ability to comprehend was low enough to indicate that emphasis was being placed on word perfect oral reading through rote memorisation at the expense of comprehension and proficiency in language use.

Some of the recommendations made in the report were:

(1) the classroom reading programme should be part of an integrated language programme to ensure proficiency in oral and written English,
(2) the English language teachers should be given flexible timetables to allow for such integration,
(3) long term retraining through inservice coursework should be developed to introduce teachers to a variety of reading instructional approaches, and
(4) key teachers should be trained to serve as resource persons in the schools (Ng, 1980).

As a result of these recommendations a 60 hour inservice reading methodology course was planned. This course followed a traditional model in that teachers attended lectures at the Institute of Education outside their normal teaching hours. They were required to complete written assignments based on implementing the techniques learned with their own classes. The course had an ambitious additional component in which two teachers were trained from each primary school (lower and upper levels) and were then expected to return to their schools and conduct workshops for their colleagues upon completion of the course. In this way, between February 1982 and May 1984, 483 teachers from 232 (about 93%) of the primary schools in Singapore completed the course (Subramaniam, 1985).

In theory the long range effect of this multiplier system would be that in a relatively short time all of the primary school English teachers would have been exposed to the same variety of teaching approaches covered in the inservice course and would (hopefully) adapt their teaching techniques accordingly. In actuality, despite generally positive responses to the end of course evaluations, these effects were not realised.

In 1984, the Reading Skills Project (a research project conducted by IE), confirmed in a preliminary report that English language teaching especially reading instruction, had changed very little despite the recommendations of the 1980 exploratory study and subsequent reading courses (Ng, 1984). The English subject timetables were still compartmentalised with oral reading, comprehension, grammar, composition, etc. assigned to specific slots. The pupils' oral reading ability still surpassed their ability to comprehend what was read.

Their progress was also hampered by the failure of the system to provide reading texts that match the reading ability of the children. An individually administered test, the Running Record (Clay, 1979) indicated that 25% of the children were faced with reading texts too difficult for them to progress normally.

The recommendations of this report were similar to the 1980 report but more specific measures were outlined. It suggested that teachers be trained in and encouraged to adopt an integrated language teaching approach such as the Language Experience Approach as described by Lee and Van Allen (1963) and the related Shared Book Approach of Holdaway (1979). Both of these approaches teach English through the meaningful language of commercially produced storybooks and through stories created by teachers and children themselves after a shared experience in the classroom. Both approaches emphasise comprehension and English usage over rote memorisation.

It should be noted that both of these approaches were introduced in the inservice reading course previously mentioned. In October 1984 a survey was conducted of randomly selected participants from the inservice courses between 1982 and 1984. Questionnaires were completed by 66 such teachers and another 46 were interviewed. Although 92% of the teachers surveyed agreed that children benefited from these approaches, the constraints of the system prevented them from regular use of the approaches in the classroom. These constraints included a compartmentalised timetable, a tightly structured syllabus incorporated in the recently developed

local language teaching packages, and limited time for preparation of materials (Reading Skills Project, 1984). It was obvious that simply retraining teachers would not bring about the desired change in the classroom without external support for the elimination of these constraints.

In November 1984 the problem was given to a newly formed core team of staff members from the Ministry of Education, the Institute of Education, and the Curriculum Development Institute. The team responded to the challenge with plans for the Reading and English Acquisition Programme (REAP).

REAP is a teacher training programme which utilises the two approaches recommended by the Reading Skills Project (1984). The objective of REAP is to guide teachers of Primary Levels One and Two away from their rigidly structured and compartmentalised language teaching strategies and toward the integration of oral and written language learning using the recommended Language Experience and Shared Book Approaches. To accomplish this the teachers are trained in school based workshops, provided with guidelines and selected storybooks, and monitored closely by workshop leaders to ensure transfer of skills from training to classroom.

Characteristics Common to REAP and Successful Teacher Training Programmes

Support for the implementation strategies of REAP can be found in the literature related to other projects involving desired change in teacher behavior. In the United States, for example, an extensive and nation wide independent study conducted by the Rand Corporation in the 1970's reviewed 293 education programmes which had been implemented between the mid 1960's and the mid 1970's. Although the effects of many of the programmes were disappointing, the evaluators compiled a list of characteristics exhibited by the most successful of these programmes. Among these were:

(1) strong support from all of the key personnel,
(2) an ambitious and complex structure requiring thorough prior planning,
(3) receptivity to change of the various institutions involved,
(4) emphasis on successful implementation,
(5) development of local materials to fit the needs of the particular project, and
(6) the process of "mutual adaptation," that is continual modification

to both the programme design and the teachers' classroom strategies (Mann, 1976).

Support for REAP

The REAP team has attempted to incorporate these characteristics in its programme. Throughout the first six months the programme has received extremely strong support from not only the key personnel in the team but also from various school officials. The team is composed of a local reading consultant, Ministry of Education inspectors, Institute of Education lecturers, Curriculum Development Institute writers, and two experienced primary teachers who were made full time project officers. This gives the team credibility amongst teachers. In addition, the overall REAP Project Coordinator is also the Director of Schools. The support system has grown steadily as the programme progressed and received positive publicity from supportive principals, from visiting reading specialists, and from teachers who had seen their pupils improving in English.

Planning the Programme

It is an ambitious and complex programme which will involve all of the lower primary school teachers over the next three to four years although the trial year is limited to 91 Primary One teachers in 30 schools. As in any such project the initial problems were those of planning, coordination, and staff deployment. The earliest tasks were the development of training materials for workshop leaders and the writing of teacher guidelines for the utilisation of existing locally produced language teaching packages. At the same time staff were selecting, ordering, and distributing commercial storybooks, conducting the training of workshop leaders and teachers, and developing procedures for workshop leaders to monitor the teachers and the overall programme. The teaching approaches were introduced in phases and while teachers were trying out the first approach the team was preparing for the introduction of the second.

Receptivity to Change

The institutions involved in REAP are receptive to change, including the Curriculum Development Institute which developed the language materials currently used in schools. They see REAP as the first step in the revision process of their materials. The results of the 1980 and 1984 research studies have been convincing in the need for change as well as the inability

of traditional courses to produce such change. Initially, the schools involved were somewhat less receptive to change but the majority of the teachers are now seeing that not only is it desirable, it is also possible. Their pupils, predominantly from non-English speaking homes, are enjoying English storybooks and are able to use a great deal of the language they are exposed to through them. These experiences will be useful in the expansion stages to help alleviate the initial resistance encountered in the first year.

Implementation

Successful implementation of REAP is the team's major goal. Its first consideration was to make implementation as teacher conducive as possible (Ng, 1985). Hopefully this would make the transition from the traditional methods of teacher centred "chalk and talk" to activity based approaches that would not be confusing and frustrating enough to warrant abandonment of them. The constraints of the structural syllabus, compartmentalised timetables, and lack of preparation time (as perceived by the teachers) had to be minimised. Since most of the Primary One classes within participating schools were involved it was easier to convince the teachers to restructure their timetables for the integration of language teaching. The structural syllabus was a more difficult problem and although it could not be changed at this time it was possible to plan language experience activities which would facilitate teaching the structures as they appear in the existing local language materials. Lack of preparation time was also difficult to counteract, particularly since the teachers were being asked to try something new. However, the provision of detailed guidelines and already enlarged books for the Shared Book Approach helped considerably.

To further ensure implementation the teacher training programme was designed to prepare the teachers thoroughly but in phases. In this way the less complex Shared Book Approach would become part of the regular classroom programme before teachers were introduced to the more difficult Language Experience Approach. The Shared Book Approach workshop was introduced in mid January 1985 and the Language Experience Approach was scheduled for March. Between these workshops, after the teachers had had a chance to try out the initial approach unobserved, they were monitored individually. This enabled immediate response to any teacher's questions and misconceptions could be corrected by the workshop leader. Such close monitoring is deemed necessary for successful implemen-

tation of innovative programmes (Hurst, 1983).

Production of Materials

The team developed their own materials to suit the needs of the programme. Specifically, these were training packages including slide/tape presentations and demonstration materials to be used by the workshop leaders. Written guidelines to accompany the enlarged books and for use in planning language experience lessons were provided for the teachers. General guidelines outlining the procedures involved in the recommended approaches were also developed.

Mutual Adaptation

The mutual adaptation process stressed by Mann (1976) and McLaughlin (1976) is also evident in the planning of REAP. Both workshop leaders and teachers were asked to evaluate the training sessions. Teachers were asked to respond to questionnaires seeking their opinions of the approaches and pupils will be asked to do the same. All of this information is being sought so that wherever necessary revisions can be made in any aspect of the programme. The opinions and suggestions of teachers, workshop leaders and pupils are important to this process of change, not only in schools but also in the implementation programme itself.

Results

At the midpoint of the trial year the available feedback includes evaluations of the teachers' workshops for the Shared Book and Language Experience Approaches and the monitoring forms completed by the leaders after observing the teachers using the Shared Book Approach. Additional information was derived from the informal comments of various people involved including principals and pupils.

Workshop Evaluations

The responses to the 15 item post-workshop questionnaires (see Appendix A) were positive (see Figure 1).

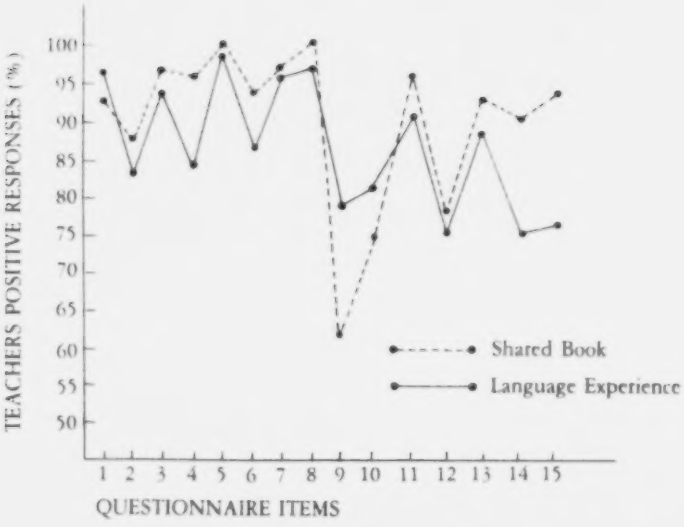

Figure 1 Post-workshop evaluations

In the evaluation of the Shared Book Approach workshop the teachers responded the least positively to the slide/tape presentation which had been too hastily produced. The Language Experience slide/tape presentation was produced less hurriedly, took into consideration previous criticism, and was more favourably received (Item 9).

On the other hand, four of the items decreased sharply in positive responses from the Shared Book to Language Experience workshops. These items (Items 4, 6, 14, 15) are all related to understanding and confidence in implementing the approaches and could reflect the more complex nature of the Language Experience Approach. Revisions of the workshop programmes for 1986 are being revised according to the questionnaire responses, and the suggestions made by workshop leaders, teachers and a foreign consultant.

Monitoring Results

The results of the monitoring system are quite encouraging. To date, all of the teachers have been monitored using the Shared Book Approach. The workshop leaders who did the monitoring are all experienced educators.

They all underwent the same workshop training which included thorough discussion of the criteria for assessment. An additional practice monitoring session using a video of an average Shared Book lesson indicated high interrater reliability among the monitors.

The monitoring forms (see Appendix B) completed by the workshop leaders include 15 items: 9 related to general teaching strategies, 4 to the use of materials specific to Shared Book techniques, 1 to the teacher's performance in English and 1 to personal involvement in the programme. Teachers were rated by the mark of *a* if they had more than satisfied the criteria set, *b* if they had satisfied minimally the criteria, and *c* if they had not satisfied the criteria. The results of the Shared Book monitoring of 90* teachers from the 30 REAP schools are as follows (see Table 1).

In items 1 through 9 related to teaching strategies, 776 of the possible 810 responses (95.8%) were *a* or *b*. Only 29 *c*'s (3.6%) were given and 5 responses were recorded as unobservable.

In items 10 through 13 regarding the use of specific materials the com-

Table 1 Results of Shared Book Approach monitoring

	Teaching Strategies (Items 1-9)	Use of Materials (Items 10-13)	English Performance (Item 14)	Personal Involvement (Item 15)	Combined Categories
Fulfilled minimum criteria or better (a + b)	95.8%	91.4%	100%	93.3%	94.7%
Below minimum criteria at time of observation (c)	3.6%	2.5%	—	6.70%	3.10%
Not observable	0.6%	6.1%	—	—	2.20%

* One of the original 91 teachers withdrew due to illness.

bined responses of *a* and *b* equalled 329 of 360 responses (91.4%) with 9 *c*'s (2.5%).

Item 14 refers to the teacher's performance in English. None of the 90 teachers failed to satisfy the criteria.

Item 15 indicates the teacher's personal involvement. Only 6 teachers were assessed as being negative towards the programme. A perhaps predictable result is that 2 of the 3 most negative teachers were those who also received the highest number of c's.

If all of the items monitored are considered together, 95% of the responses indicate satisfaction of the criteria or better with 3% below the criteria. Although encouraging, it should be mentioned that the Shared Book Approach is relatively easier to carry out than the Language Experience Approach. From the informal feedback of the workshop leaders who recently began monitoring Language Experience it is obvious that the teachers are having a bit more difficulty with these lessons. These lessons represent the bulk of their English teaching time, 10 periods per week as opposed to the 5 periods a week of Shared Book lessons. More planning is involved and preparation of materials is more extensive. It undoubtedly will be necessary for the workshop leaders to spend more time working with the teachers in their classrooms until they become more at ease with the approach. Formal feedback on this will not be available until the end of 1985.

Pupil achievement also will be monitored near the end of the year but significant gains are not expected in the first year. What is expected is an increased interest in English storybooks and reading in general which may lead to improvement in reading ability and overall English language proficiency in the future. This prediction is supported by the Elley and Mangubhai (1983) studies in the South Pacific. As the pupils improve the teachers should be more convinced that changing their instructional methods is worth the extra effort and the programme will succeed.

The informal feedback from workshop leaders, principals, teachers and pupils has been encouraging also. Some of the non-REAP teachers already are curious about the Shared Book and Language Experience Approaches and are requesting involvement in the programme.

Conclusion

As the programme is expanded in 1986 to the Primary Two classes in

the present 30 REAP schools and to Primary One classes in about 60 more schools, the team will need to scrutinise all feedback and revise as necessary both materials and implementation strategies. It will require a larger team of workshop leaders/monitors in order to provide the individual monitoring which is increasingly evident as the key to successful instructional change in the classroom. The REAP team will strive to retain its present flexibility through the expansion years so that the effectiveness of the mutual adaptation process will not be decreased. To achieve this end it is essential to include the teachers in this process. For this reason the team is resisting the inclination toward professional printing of the guidelines so that they can be continually revised. Likewise, the slide/tape format will not be replaced by videos which are more difficult and costly to revise. Only after REAP ceases to be exclusively an inservice programme will the materials be put into a more permanent form for regular preservice training. In the meantime REAP will continue to influence change in language teaching strategies.

The ultimate goal is for Singaporean children not only to be more successful at learning English but to find it less boring, less dreary — and perhaps even to discover that reading and writing can provide enduring pleasure.

References

Clay, M.M. (1979). *The Early Detection of Reading Difficulties.* Auckland: Heinemann Educational Books.

Elley, W.B., & Mangubhai, F. (1983). The Impact of Reading on Second Language Learning. *Reading Research Quarterly, 19(1),* 53-67.

Holdaway, D. (1979). *The Foundations of Literacy.* Sydney: Ashton Scholastic.

Hurst, P. (1983). *Implementing Educational Change — A Critical Review of the Literature.* London: University of London Institute of Education.

Lee, D.M., & Allen, R.V. (1963). *Learning to Read through Experience.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Mann, D. (1976). The Politics of Training Teachers in Schools. *Teachers College Record, 77(3),* 323-338.

McLaughlin, M.W. (1976). Implementation as Mutual Adaptation: Change in Classroom Organisation. *Teachers College Record, 77(3),* 339-351.

Ministry of Education. (1979). New Education System Implementation Guidelines (Primary Level). Singapore: Ministry of Education.

Ng, S.M. (1980). *The Status of Reading in Primary 1, 2, and 3 in Singapore.*

Singapore: Institute of Education. (Occasional Paper No. 5)

Ng, S.M. (1984). *Summative Report of the Reading Skills Project*. Unpublished MCM paper, MC/84/2433.

Ng, S.M. (1985). Implementation Strategies for an Integrative Approach to Teaching Reading and Language. Paper presented at RELC Regional Seminar on Language Across the Curriculum, Singapore.

Reading Skills Project. (1984). A Feasability Study of the Use of Shared Book and Language Experience Approaches in Singapore Classrooms. Unpublished report. Institute of Education, Singapore.

Subramaniam, N. (1985). Personal communication from Ministry of Education, Singapore.

Tay, E.S. (1982). Some Issues on Educational Policy. Speech delivered at National University of Singapore Forum.

Appendix A

(Monitoring Form B2)

Teacher Feedback on Workshop

Name: _____

School: _____

Training Session Number: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
(circle one)

Instructions: Please indicate the extent of your agreement/disagreement with each of the items by circling the appropriate code.

SA — Strongly Agree
A — Agree
N — Neutral
D — Disagree
SD — Strongly Disagree

	Circle one				
1. The various workshop components/activities were well organised/co-ordinated.	SA	A	N	D	SD
2. The workshop covered the topic adequately.	SA	A	N	D	SD
3. The explanations and descriptions given were clear and understandable.	SA	A	N	D	SD
4. The way in which the implemented approach was presented was compatible with my background knowledge and experience.	SA	A	N	D	SD
5. The workshop leader was approachable and helpful.	SA	A	N	D	SD
6. The questions and doubts raised in the workshop were adequately answered.	SA	A	N	D	SD

7. The methods of instruction used by the workshop leader were appropriate.	SA	A	N	D	SD
8. The workshop leader was knowledgeable in the techniques.	SA	A	N	D	SD
9. The slide-tape presentation helped me to understand this approach better.	SA	A	N	D	SD
10. The other workshop activities provided additional understanding of this approach.	SA	A	N	D	SD
11. The use of the Guidelines was explained to my satisfaction.	SA	A	N	D	SD
12. There was adequate provision of equipment and resources.	SA	A	N	D	SD
13. The knowledge and skills acquired in the workshop are useful and applicable.	SA	A	N	D	SD
14. With some experience, I will feel secure in implementing this approach in my classroom.	SA	A	N	D	SD
15. Overall, I was satisfied with the workshop and would recommend it to my colleagues.	SA	A	N	D	SD

16. Please suggest ways by which future workshops might be improved.

_____

_____

_____

17. Which aspects of the workshop did you find most satisfying?

_____

_____

_____

18. Further comments:

_____

_____

_____

Appendix B

(Monitoring Form A2)

Coding Descriptions for Workshop Leader's Monitoring Form (A1) on SBA Lessons

A. *Teaching Strategies of SBA:*

1. Introduces a new story often.
   a) 2 or more times/week
   b) Less than 2 times/week
   c) None introduced that week.
2. Reads aloud effectively.
   a) Reads with lively expression.
   b) Reads with some expression.
   c) Reads with no expression.
3. Uses the SBA as taught in the workshop.
   a) Uses the SBA procedures as taught in the workshop as a basis for a lesson and adds some of her own activities/ideas when appropriate.
   b) Uses the SBA procedures as taught in the workshop with none of her own activities/ideas.
   c) Does not use/does not use correctly the SBA procedures.
4. Uses responses and questions from pupils in teaching.
   a) Asks for responses or questions frequently throughout the lesson.
   b) Acknowledges pupils who wish to be recognized and occasionally asks for pupil responses/questions.
   c) Ignores or uses negative words or actions to discourage pupils from giving responses/asking questions.
5. Provides feedback on all types of pupil responses throughout lesson.
   a) Helps pupils evaluate the adequacy of their own performance and probes for the source of misunderstandings which arise.
   b) Informs pupils of the adequacy of their performance.

c) Accepts learner comments or performance without feedback about adequacy.

. Implements learning activities in a logical sequence.
   a) The lesson is arranged to present most ideas, skills, etc. in a logical sequence.
   b) The lesson is arranged to present a few ideas, skills, etc. in a logical sequence but activities are unrelated.
   c) Activities used in the classroom are unrelated to one another or to the objectives.

7. Maintains pupil involvement in lessons.
   a) Nearly all pupils are actively participating in planned activities.
   b) Some to most pupils are actively participating.
   c) Few pupils are actively participating.

8. Relates the learning to pupils' previous knowledge and personal experiences.
   a) Teacher relates new learning to old and encourages pupil sharing of experience without causing distraction to lesson (Example: relating experience of watching tigers at the zoo to the tigers in *Sing a Song.)*.
   b) Teacher does relating without involving pupils.
   c) Teacher does no relating.

9. Uses effective teaching manner.
   a) Teaching manner is enthusiastic.
   b) Low degree of enthusiastic teaching manner.
   c) Teaching manner is unenthusiastic.

B. *Materials*

10. Word mask is used appropriately.
    a) Uses word mask appropriately and allows pupils to use it in activities/responses.
    b) Uses mask appropriately but does not allow pupils to use it.
    c) Uses mask inappropriately or not at all.

11. Pointer is used appropriately.
    a) Uses pointer appropriately and allows pupils to use it in activities/responses.
    b) Uses pointer appropriately but does not allow pupils to use it.
    c) Uses pointer inappropriately or not at all.

12. Teacher-made materials (worksheets, sentence strips, cassette

recordings, charts, etc.) are appropriate to the activities and lesson objectives.

a) Teacher-made materials are appropriate to all of the activities and lesson objectives.

b) Materials are appropriate to most of the activities and lesson objectives.

c) Materials are inappropriate to activities and lesson objectives.

13. Selects appropriate activities to meet the objectives.

a) Selects appropriate activities from the guidelines to meet the objectives and adds some of her own.

b) Selects appropriate activities to meet the objectives.

c) Inappropriate activities are selected.

C. *Teacher Performance/Involvement*

14. Uses acceptable written and oral expression in English with pupils.

a) Four of the descriptors are evident.

b) One to three of the descriptors are evident.

c) None of the descriptors is evident.

Descriptors:

1) Speech is clear.

2) Oral grammar is correct.

3) Written materials are legible.

4) Written grammar is correct.

15. Teacher shows a positive involvement towards this programme.

a) Teacher shows enthusiasm and interest in programme and provides own suggestions for improvement.

b) Teacher shows interest in programme.

c) Teacher is negative towards programme.

PART THREE

Chapter VII

Role of L1 Literacy in L2 Reading Comprehension

SAHAH OSMAN
University of Malaya
Malaysia

Introduction

Although research in second language reading is increasing in amount, it is still minimal when one takes into account the fact that more and more learners are expected to read a great deal of material written in the non-native language. Especially with regard to the ability to read in English, there is no denying the fact that an increasing number of non-native learners are expected to acquire information from the various fields of knowledge through the medium of written English. Even in this age of tremendous challenges from other types of media, the ability to read in English will remain an important means by which access is gained to the vast body of existing knowledge. Particularly for those non-native learners who have achieved a certain level of proficiency, in the sense that they have already mastered the mechanics of reading in the language, the ability to comprehend text written in English is perhaps the most important skill they have to acquire.

With the above in mind, there is a clear need to improve ESL learners' reading abilities. Furthermore, as has often been pointed out, these learners who come from diverse language backgrounds, seem to have more difficulty with reading than with any other skill (Mackay, Barkman and Jordan, 1979; Cziko, 1978; Eskey, 1979). This is not particularly surprising considering that for a long time reading has been given low priority in second language classrooms. For example, Agard and Dunkel (1948) have made the observation that from the very beginning stages of teaching English to non-native speakers, ESL specialists have tended to concentrate on the students' mastery at the elementary levels of English and ignored the serious problems confronting students at the intermediate or higher

levels. Few methods, for example, have been developed for instructing the teacher or the student in the higher level comprehension skills. Somehow reading was "supposed" to happen.

When writing on the same subject, Heaton (1975) expressed his concern that efficient reading skills have been pushed into the background because too much emphasis has been given to the early stages of second language learning. Robinett (1978) also referred to the general lack of research into the reading behaviour of second language learners, specifically those learning English as a second language.

Clearly, there is a dearth of materials on reading as a higher level skill in the second language. It is indeed unfortunate that very few studies have attempted to systematically analyze the cognitive skills necessary for successful reading in a second language. The fundamental question of what happens when an ESL reader who has passed the word recognition stage attempts to understand the meanings conveyed by text has not been answered. Not surprisingly, second language specialists and classroom teachers know very little about the mental processes involved in reading in a second language.

For the present, a number of researchers have suggested that what is needed is a better understanding of the cognitive processes involved in second language reading. They point out that previously, those who have been concerned with aspects of second language learning, seemed to have been mainly preoccupied with the skills of sound discrimination, the mastery of sentence patterns, etc. In short, they argued that the audio-lingual approach in second language pedagogy has led to the neglect of reading as a language skill. Although the findings of the advocates of the audio-lingual approach have been invaluable to research, at best, they could not lead to a complete understanding of the processes involved in second language reading.

In this paper it is argued that if teachers and educators wish to maximize the second language students' performance in reading, it is important that they understand the various variables which may contribute to more efficient reading in the second language. After all, the prime goal of all reading instruction is to increase learners' abilities to comprehend what they read. There is also hardly any argument about the view that efficient reading be seen as an important goal of the ESL curriculum.

Relationship between L1 and L2 Reading

There seems to be wide support for the assertion that competence in the target language itself influences the reading comprehension of material written in the target language (Cziko, 1978, 1980; Ulijn, 1980; Clarke, 1979, 1980). These researchers have taken the position that while there are surely some similarities between reading in the native language and reading in the second language, the fact remains that the ability to comprehend text written in the non-native language depends much more on the learners' level of competence in the target language. In other words, while supportive of the notion of similar processes in both L1 reading and L2 reading, the above-mentioned theorists maintain that although L2 readers similar to their native counterparts may rely on knowledge of the language and knowledge of the world, the difference lies in the fact their limited command of the target language places a ceiling on their ability to comprehend text written in that language. Without a certain minimum level of competence in the second language, comprehension breaks down. Very little argument is needed to support this position, described by Clarke (1979) as the "short-circuit" hypothesis.

To be noted is that few researchers have directly examined the possibility that a learner's reading skills in the native language directly influences his performance in reading a second language. There are, however, a few notable exceptions. In fact, as early as the 1930's, educators including West (1931) have suggested the existence of a general reading skill, which is transferable from the native language to the second language. Other earlier investigators include Barrera-Vasquez (1953) and Modiano (1968). Included among the more recent investigators are Deemer (1978) and Groebel (1980).

Unlike the first group of investigators mentioned earlier who have stressed the importance of a certain level of competence in the target language itself, the latter group have argued that reading involves some basic skills that can be used in any language. For example, both Deemer (1978) and Groebel (1980) maintained that there is a significant relationship between reading skills or abilities in the native language and second language reading. More specifically, the claim made is that there is a transfer of reading abilities between languages.

Basically, what has been implied by Deemer (1978) is that reading is a non-language specific skill, suggesting that the reading task in the target

language is made easier by the transference of L1 reading skills. Deemer (1978) further pointed out that native language literacy considerably facilitates second language reading, even in cases in which the reader could not otherwise use the target language with ease. Groebel (1980) has similarly suggested that skills are transferred from native language reading to target language reading.

Perhaps, the strongest statement of the view that there is a significant relationship between reading skills in the native language and reading skills in the second language has been expressed by Thonis (1970). According to the author, for the non-native readers, the skill in word recognition and the comprehension of text written in English can be built upon the native language literacy they already possess.

It is noted that the studies undertaken by Deemer (1978) and the earlier investigators already mentioned are limited in that they have failed to take into account reader use of existing knowledge when comprehending text. In her study, Gröebel (1980) seemed to mention only in passing the possible effects of background knowledge in comprehension. It is also unfortunate that these studies have not provided a viable explanation as to why there may be a positive transfer from native language literacy to second language reading.

However, it is interesting to note that several of the more recent studies including those undertaken by Hudson (1982) and Johnson (1981, 1982) have demonstrated the strong effect a student's prior knowledge can have upon the comprehension of text written in English, the second language. Even more interesting is the finding that from among these recent second language reading studies are those which have offered contradictory findings. Carrell (1983) and Carrell and Wallace (1983) found no significant effects of prior or background knowledge in ESL subjects' reading comprehension. At this point it is possible to say that as useful as their contribution has been, previous second language reading studies which have not specifically described the role of prior knowledge in comprehension suffer from some serious deficiencies. This is simply because what may potentially be a very significant variable has not been taken into account.

An attempt has been made to integrate the findings of relevant research by drawing together the studies mentioned above. In order to provide a broader framework, the present study took into consideration the influence of prior knowledge in terms of cultural schemata in addition to that of

reading ability in L2. The effect of general language ability in L1 was also considered.

The Study

This study used schema theory as the theoretical framework to examine how second language readers comprehend text. Schema theory suggests that, since meaning is not inherently embedded in a text, the reader with the greater amount of prior knowledge should be more able to fill in whatever gaps there are by consulting the appropriate schema in memory. Since schemata are based in part upon cultural knowledge, it would logically follow that readers will comprehend better passages that are based on their own culture than if the passages are not. With respect to the use of relevant schemata, there is little reason to suppose that second language reading will be any different from first or native language reading. In fact, it is likely that cultural schemata would aid second language readers even more than if they were reading in their native languages. Without good control of the rules of English, non-native readers would be less successful in obtaining cues from the written text. It would then be necessary for them to make use of additional or extralinguistic cues that they may have to help them in comprehension (Hudson, 1982).

As already stated, in order to attain comprehension, readers attempt to fill in slots not only from information directly stated or implied in the text but also by drawing upon prior knowledge. With this in mind, the purpose of this investigation was to test the hypothesis derived from schema theory on the relationship between prior knowledge in terms of cultural schemata and reading comprehension. This hypothesis was tested by drawing Malaysian students from two different cultural groups, i.e., native speakers of Malay and native speakers of Chinese. It would seem reasonable to assume that subjects from both cultural groups would differ in terms of their cultural schemata. It was expected that a reader from one cultural group would score significantly better on passages based on topics related to his cultural schemata compared to one which was not related. A significant interaction was expected between passage and cultural group (a proxy for cultural schemata) where the Malay population reading the Hari Raya Puasa passage was expected to perform significantly better than the Chinese population, and conversely, the Chinese population was expected to perform significantly better than the Malay population on the Chinese

New Year passage.

Another concern of this study related to the effects of question type on comprehension test performance. It was expected that there would be significant main effects for question type, where subjects tend to score higher on textually explicit compared to textually implicit, higher on textually implicit compared to scriptally implicit questions. This may be explained by the fact that it is easier to respond to textually explicit questions to which the answers are found verbatim in the text, as it requires only the ability to repeat or recall information in the text. Scriptally implicit and to a lesser extent textually implicit questions involve higher level cognitive processing as they require the reader to recognize ideas which are implicitly stated or which require the ability to draw on prior knowledge, specifically in terms of cultural schemata.

Since this study involved second language readers, it was expected that a certain minimum level of reading ability in L2 was sufficient to comprehend what is explicitly stated in the text. With respect to cultural schemata, it was expected that it may not crucially affect performance when subjects are asked to respond to textually explicit questions. However, cultural schemata was expected to be an important determinant of the ability to respond to scriptally implicit questions. In general, the influence of cultural schemata on the ability to respond to textually implicit type of questions was expected to be less than the ability to respond to scriptally implicit type of questions but greater than on textually explicit type of questions.

For the reasons mentioned above, it was therefore envisaged that there will be significant interaction effects of reading ability in L2, cultural schemata, passage type and question type.

Subjects

There were a total of 60 subjects, 30 of whom were ESL readers who are native speakers of Malay and 30 were ESL readers who are native speakers of Chinese. All subjects were students (CA 16.7) at the Form Four level (equivalent to Grade 10) from the Raja Perempuan Zarina School in the Port Kelang area, Selangor. To be noted is that this school is located in a semi-urban area where the socio-economic levels of the students were estimated to range from lower-middle class.

A major reason for the inclusion of the two culturally contrasted groups

was to determine by empirical comparisons whether knowledge of a given culturally familiar topic influences comprehension test performance. In other words, this delineation of two groups was to indicate the extent to which prior knowledge which is culture-specific is activated during the processing of text. The inclusion of two groups eliminated confounding cultural schemata with task difficulty because each group read and comprehended two passages, one of which was culturally familiar and the other culturally unfamiliar.

Materials

Two passages written in English on the topic of festivals were selected to assess reading comprehension. While one topic was culturally familiar to one group, the other was culturally unfamiliar. The familiarity of the passages was the reverse for the second group. Both passages were taken from the same commercial book.

The first passage was on Hari Raya Puasa, also known as Idil Fitri, a very important festival of religious significance celebrated by all Moslems throughout the world including the Malay speaking Moslem subjects in the study. Throughout the passage many cultural references were made. The native speakers of Malay in the study were assumed to have had many common experiences about Hari Raya Puasa because it is a significant part of their culture.

The second passage was on Chinese New Year, an important festival celebrated by all Chinese throughout the world including the Chinese cultural group in Malaysia. It is necessary to point out that even if the Malay-speaking children may have had some knowledge about this festival, it is likely that their comprehension would be inhibited by the cultural elements since it is essentially a culture-specific passage.

Familiarity with each of the topics was first determined by the investigator's own personal judgement based on knowledge of what is culturally familiar and what is culturally unfamiliar to each of the two groups involved in the study. Teachers were asked to confirm these judgements. Furthermore, to confirm the relative familiarity of the topics, the investigator checked statistically the difference between the two mean scores subjects obtained on the test of key vocabulary/concepts related to the content of the passages.

The means of the scores based on familiar and unfamiliar passages for the Malay cultural group were 11.7 and 3.0, respectively, with correspond-

ingly respective standard deviations of 2.60 and 2.15. The means of the scores based on familiar and unfamiliar passages for the Chinese cultural group were respectively 11.5 and 6.6 with corresponding standard deviations of 2.30 and 2.44. The means of the two scores based on the two passages were statistically different for both the native speakers of Malay ($t = 14.06$, d.f. $= 58$, $p < 0.01$) and the native speakers of Chinese ($t = 8.00$, d.f. $= 58$, $p < 0.01$).

Attempts were made to ensure that there was comparability between the two passages used in the study. The Readability Computer Program was used to assess the grade level of the two comprehension passages.

The passages were found to be of seventh to eighth grade level of difficulty. Additionally, passage characteristics in terms of number of words, number of sentences, sentences per 100 words as well as number of syllables per 100 words were taken into account.

Following the two comprehension passages, there were 18 multiple-choice questions for each passage. Six were textually explicit, six textually implicit and six scriptally implicit. Pearson and Johnson's (1978) taxonomy was used to guide the development and composition of questions.

Procedures

On the first day of the investigation, with the cooperation of classroom teachers, the investigator collated the scores subjects obtained in the Bahasa Malaysia paper of the Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (Lower Certificate of Education) examination. It should be noted that this is a nation-wide examination taken by the subjects at the end of their Form Three year. A failure in the Bahasa Malaysia paper would necessarily mean failing the entire examination.

The subjects were later administered the Reading Sub-Test on the Metropolitan Achievement Test to determine their level of reading ability in L2. The median split was used to categorize subjects from both cultural groups into high reading ability and low reading ability sub-groups.

One week later, subjects were administered the key vocabulary/concepts test developed by the investigator to formally assess the amount of relevant prior knowledge of both cultural groups on the two passage topics.

After a two day delay following the key vocabulary/concepts test of prior knowledge, subjects were asked to read the two comprehension passages and answer corresponding multiple-choice questions. Order of presentation of the passages was taken into account by dividing at ran-

dom each cultural group into two equal sub-groups. The first Malay sub-group was administered the Hari Raya Puasa passage and then followed by the Chinese New Year passage. The second Malay sub-group was first administered the Chinese New Year passage and then followed by the Hari Raya Puasa passage. The procedure was similarly followed for the two sub-groups of the Chinese population.

Design

The design of this study was the three-factor univariate analysis of the repeated measures. The data were analyzed (a) by 2 (cultural group – Malay and Chinese) × 2 (reading ability – high and low) × 2 (passage – Hari Raya Puasa and Chinese New Year) analyses of variance (ANOVA) and covariance (ANCOVA), and (b) 2 (cultural group – Malay and Chinese) × 2 (reading ability – high and low) × 3 (question type – textually explicit, textually implicit and scriptally implicit) ANOVA and ANCOVA; both with repeated measures on the last factor. General language ability in L1 (Malay) was controlled through covariance. There was a need to control these initial differences because for the Malay cultural group, Bahasa Malaysia or Malay is the native language, but for the Chinese cultural group, Malay is in most cases a second if not a third language. While these differences were not expected to be large because Malay, the national language of the country, is not only widely used but also the medium of instruction in all national schools, a control was used nonetheless.

Results

The initial treatment of the data involved the calculation of the cell means and standard deviations for the factors. Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations of total comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and passage. Overall, the Chinese students had slightly higher comprehension scores (mean = 13.067) than the Malay students (mean = 12.217). Students with high reading ability, regardless of cultural group and passage, tended to outscore students with low reading ability. Finally, it was noted that Malay students performed better on the Hari Raya Puasa passage compared to the Chinese New Year passage; conversely, the Chinese performed better on the Chinese New Year passage compared to the Hari Raya Puasa passage, irrespective of their level of reading ability. It should also be noted that, on average, even the low ability Chinese readers performed better on the Chinese New Year passage (mean =

Table 1 Means and standard deviations of total comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and passage

Cultural Group	Ability	Passage	Mean	S.D.
Malay	High	HRP	15.400	1.805
	Low	HRP	12.400	1.639
	High	CNY	11.467	2.560
	Low	CNY	9.600	1.844
	Total		12.217	2.871
Chinese	High	HRP	13.267	1.534
	Low	HRP	9.667	1.877
	High	CNY	16.133	1.457
	Low	CNY	13.200	2.042
	Total		13.067	2.867

HRP = Hari Raya Puasa; and CNY = Chinese New Year

Table 2 Analysis of variance for comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and passage

Source	d.f.	M.S.	F	P
Between subjects:				
Cultural Group (G)	1	21.675	4.204	0.050
Ability (A)	1	243.675	47.261	0.000
G × A	1	5.208	1.010	0.323
Error between	28	5.156		
Within subjects:				
Passage (P)	1	0.208	0.100	0.753
G × P	1	323.408	155.592	0.000
A × P	1	6.075	2.923	0.093
G × A × P	1	0.408	0.196	0.659
Error within	56	2.079		

Table 3 Analysis of covariance for comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and passage

Source	d.f.	M.S.	F	P
Between subjects:				
Regression	1	35.047	8.656	0.007
Cultural Group (G)	1	56.237	13.889	0.001
Ability (A)	1	76.534	18.903	0.000
G × A	1	2.044	0.505	0.483
Error between	27	4.049		
Within subjects:				
Regression	1	2.099	0.991	0.356
Passage (P)	1	0.219	0.103	0.749
G × P	1	280.213	132.363	0.000
A × P	1	7.819	3.693	0.069
G × A × P	1	0.398	0.188	0.644
Error within	55	2.117		

13.200) than the high ability Malay readers (mean = 11.467). The above results are supported by the ANOVA results shown in Table 2.

Results of the 2 (cultural group) × 2 (reading ability) × 2 (passage) analysis of variance with repeated measures on the last factor indicated significant main effects for cultural group ($F(1, 28) = 4.204$; $p = 0.05$) and reading ability ($F(1, 28) = 47.261$; $p < 0.001$). The repeated measures factor, passage, was not found to be significant at the conventional level ($F(1, 56) = 0.100$; $p < 0.05$).

When the investigator checked the results of the ANOVA with the ANCOVA, there was virtually no change in the results (Table 3). Inclusion of the covariate in the model gave the mean square due to regression (adjusted for the covariate).

Again, the significant main effects for cultural group and reading ability were confirmed. The cultural group and reading ability factors proved to be significant ($F(1, 27) = 13.889$; $p < 0.001$) and ($F(1, 27) = 18.903$; $p < 0.001$) and ($F(1, 27) = 18.903$; $p < 0.001$), respectively; while the cultural group by passage interaction was also present ($F(1, 55) = 147.481$; $p < 0.005$).

Table 4 Means and standard deviations for comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and question type based on Hari Raya Puasa passage

Cultural Group	Ability	Question Type	Mean	Std. Dev.
Malay	High	TE	5.467	0.915
		TI	4.867	0.915
		SI	5.067	0.799
		Total	5.133	0.894
	Low	TE	4.000	0.535
		TI	4.000	1.309
		SI	4.400	0.828
		Total	4.133	0.944
Chinese	High	TE	5.000	0.756
		TI	4.600	0.910
		SI	3.667	1.047
		Total	4.422	1.055
	Low	TE	3.800	1.265
		TI	3.467	0.640
		SI	2.400	0.737
		Total	3.222	1.085

TE = Textually explicit; TI = Textually implicit; and
SI = Scriptally implicit.

A separate analysis was conducted for each of the Hari Raya Puasa and Chinese New Year passages. Table 4 gives the means and standard deviations for comprehension scores based on the Hari Raya Puasa passage by cultural group, reading ability and question type (textually explicit, textually implicit and scriptally implicit) and Table 5 summarizes the corresponding results of the 2 (cultural group) × 2 (reading ability) × 3 (question type) analysis of variance with repeated measures on the last factor.

As shown in Table 5 there were significant main effects for cultural group

Table 5 Analysis of variance of comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and question type on Hari Raya Puasa passage

Source	d.f.	M.S.	F	P
Between subjects:				
Cultural Group (G)	1	31.601	29.600	0.000
Ability (A)	1	51.952	48.662	0.000
G × A	1	0.660	0.618	0.438
Error between	28	1.068		
Within subjects:				
Question Type (Q)	2	6.592	8.807	0.000
G × Q	2	9.645	12.887	0.000
A × Q	2	0.713	0.953	0.389
G × A × Q	2	1.054	1.408	0.249
Error within	112	0.748		

Table 6 Analysis of covariance for comprehension scores by cultural group, reading ability and question type on Hari Raya Puasa passage

Source	d.f.	M.S.	F	P
Between subjects:				
Regression	1	6.343	6.981	0.014
Cultural Group (G)	1	2.293	2.524	0.124
Ability (A)	1	12.929	14.231	0.001
G × A	1	0.102	0.112	0.740
Error between	27	0.909		
Within subjects:				
Regression	1	0.618	0.820	0.367
Question Type (Q)	2	7.262	9.636	0.000
G × Q	2	8.676	11.512	0.000
A × Q	2	0.807	1.071	0.346
G × A × Q	2	0.350	0.465	0.497
Error within	111	0.754		

($F(1,28) = 29.600$; $p < 0.001$), and reading ability ($F(1, 28) = 48.662$; $p < 0.001$), and also for the repeated measures factor question type ($F(2, 112) = 8.80$; $p<0.001$).

A summary of the analysis of covariance where both the between-subjects and within-in subjects components were adjusted for the effect of the covariate (general language ability in L1) is shown in Table 6. It is apparent that there was a significant main effect for reading ability ($F(1, 27) = 14.231$; $p < 0.001$) and for the repeated measures question type factor.

Summary of findings

A major finding of this study is that the processing of textual information by ESL readers is considerably enhanced by relevant existing schemata. Similar to the findings of the study undertaken by Steffensen, Joag-dev and Anderson (1979), it was found that readers coming from different cultural backgrounds interpret text differently because of differences in the high-level cultural schemata that are activated.

Based on such findings, the notion of a schema-theoretic view of second language reading comprehension is supported. This essentially means that similar to reading in the native language, second language reading is seen as an interactive process dependent not only on textual input, but also on relevant prior knowledge, specifically in terms of the cultural schemata which the reader brings to the text. Simply stated, cultural schemata may crucially affect the efficiency with which non-native speakers of English process textual information when reading English prose.

From the findings of this study, it can also be concluded that readers reading in English as a second language may have difficulties in comprehension not only because of "inadequate grasp of the language" (Hatch, 1974) or "linguistic shortcomings (Hill, 1981), but also because of the lack of prior knowledge, specifically in terms of cultural schemata. Firm support is thus provided for the findings that prior knowledge is an important factor influencing ESL readers' comprehension (Hudson, 1982; Johnson, 1981, 1982).

This study showed that there were statistically significant effects for reading ability in L2, suggesting that regardless of which passage the students read, the high reading ability subjects from both cultural groups could comprehend better than the low reading ability subjects. The reasons for this are not difficult to understand. As explained by Clarke (1979) and

Cziko (1978), it is highly likely that the limited language proficiency of some learners places a ceiling on their L2 reading ability.

An interesting pattern of response has emerged with respect to subjects' ability to answer different types of questions. The study[113] showed that regardless of reading ability in L2, when required to read the Hari Raya Puasa passage, the overall performance of the Malay students was better than that of the Chinese students, but mainly because of differences in responses to scriptally implicit questions. Regardless of reading ability, when subjects from both cultural groups were required to read the Chinese New Year passage, it was found that the Chinese students were able to perform better than the Malay students, but again, mainly because of differences in responses to scriptally implicit questions.

It is necessary to point out that in order to answer scriptally implicit questions, the reader has to combine some information from the text and some of his relevant background knowledge (Johnson, 1982). Taken together the findings of this study have been able to show that prior knowledge in terms of cultural schemata considerably aids the second language reader to answer scriptally implicit questions. It can be concluded that prior knowledge in terms of cultural schemata may even override differences in reading ability in English. The role of L1 literacy in second language reading can also be said to be of little significance.

Pedagogical Implications

Having determined some of the variables which may influence ESL reading comprehension, it may be pertinent here to discuss some of the pedagogical implications of the findings of this study. The point should be made that the reason for attempting to obtain a detailed picture of how second language readers process information is its relevance for materials selection and classroom practices. Since the question of materials is closely related to the question of instructional strategies for optimizing teaching effectiveness and learning outcomes, ESL teachers and educators need to give serious thought to the question of how to improve both materials and classroom practices. Perhaps, this group of people who are actively concerned with second language learners, needs to consider fundamental changes with respect to the selection and classroom treatment of written texts.

We have now made great strides in understanding the reading process

and it is right that we should take advantage of this knowledge in teaching students how to read for understanding. Unfortunately, as noted by Wilson (1983), comprehension as a process has not yet been reflected in practice. Here it is important to emphasize that schema theory can help teachers to begin with a clear understanding of the reading process. For example, the theory as applied to second language reading, can be potentially useful in helping ESL teachers select appropriate materials and plan a wide range of instructional strategies.

Materials for ESL readers seem to require careful attention to the content. From the findings of this study it would seem advantageous for ESL classroom teachers to preview the passages to be read in order that they could determine the content. Although ESL teachers have intuitively known that familiar content would be easier to comprehend it still seems necessary to point out that it would be wiser to begin with passages having familiar content. Perhaps, for ESL learners, culturally familiar material, or for that matter, any material with a local background would be appropriate because they are relevant to the students' world and thus, easier to comprehend.

The above suggestion is in line with earlier suggestions regarding material suitable to ESL learners. For example, Paulston and Bruder (1976), Robinett (1978) and Rivers (1968) have suggested that there should be minimal conflict between the students' world, specifically with respect to their values and those expressed in the reading material.

Teachers need to bear in mind that although it is suggested that they select and utilize familiar material, it does not necessarily mean that they need to clearly steer away from dealing with unfamiliar, and, in particular culture-specific content (Robinett, 1978). Instead, it becomes imperative for teachers to discuss the content beforehand to avoid confusion in the minds of the students. Simply stated, they must help students become involved in the content of what they read whether it is familiar or not.

It is suggested that when dealing with difficult or unfamiliar material, a good approach would be to do something about it so that it could be related to the cognitive structure of the learner. If, as this study has shown, texts remain incomprehensible to readers because of a lack of relevant background information—knowing little about a topic, then, it becomes necessary for teachers to develop and enhance appropriate background knowledge. We can add that teachers can either encourage or discourage children in utilizing existing prior knowledge.

Teachers could plan appropriate strategies to help students develop some

background knowledge about the topic to be read. A viable approach would be to get students to read other materials on the same topic. Watson (1980) has suggested the use of conceptually related texts as a way of getting students to gain independent experiences before the actual reading. Such reading of related texts may activate as well as hasten the development of a particular schema. Encouraging the use of multiple texts on the same topic appears to be a good way to ensure that students gain more varied experiences as well as be more mentally prepared for reading.

It is also essential for teachers to bear in mind that "schemata" or relevant knowledge structures are not static. They can be changed in a number of ways. Teachers could pay attention to the importance of what is termed as "pre-reading instruction." This introductory phase is sometimes called "setting the stage." What is meant here is the whole range of activities, from vocabulary instruction to a more global treatment of the subject. It could include an introductory overview, either in the form of advanced organizers or a survey procedure. The extent of the introductory activities depends on how much prior knowledge readers already possess. The person who is best able to make this judgement is the teacher. Indeed, if we were to accept a schema-theoretic view of second language reading, it necessarily follows that we accept the responsibility of the teacher to alert students to the relevant schemata before requiring them to read a piece of text.

To summarize at this point, it would seem useful for teachers to think about how and under what circumstances schemata could be developed or modified through instructional strategies. Specifically, it would seem that assessing students' prior knowledge should be a precondition for those who intend to create, select or utilize reading materials for their students. Appropriate preassessment of the amount of relevant prior knowledge that subjects already possess is an important part of the instructional strategy. If this initial step is taken, it would certainly be one in the right direction aimed at improving the reading comprehension performance of ESL readers.

Other than the use of related reading materials already mentioned, the teacher could provide specific background experiences through a variety of means such as pictures, film recordings and field trips. As pointed out by Pearson and Johnson (1978), classroom teachers can improve the comprehension of students by providing the necessary background knowledge.

There are also important implications for classroom practices with respect

to the finding that there are significant differences in comprehension performance between the high and the low reading ability readers of both ethnic groups. It was found that the high reading ability groups performed better than the low reading ability groups. Recognizing that there is this diversity among learners with respect to reading abilities, it becomes necessary for teachers to make use of and plan for strategies which will capitalize on an individual's strengths.

With respect to the finding that there are significant differences in ESL readers' responses to different question types, it would appear that teachers need to ask themselves whether in fact the questions they pose require students to engage in different types of cognition. Merely asking the low level processing, i.e., the textually explicit type of questions, would hardly encourage students to go beyond or to draw inferences from the text. Suffice is to say that teachers really need to understand the thought processes involved in answering different types of comprehension questions.

Conceivably, among the viable explanations for the differences in response pattern on different question types are that students generally have had more practice answering textually explicit type of questions (Guszak, 1972). In short, teachers more often than not ask this low level thinking type of questions in their classrooms. Another is that it is in fact easier to respond to questions which have answers stated in a single sentence in the text. The relatively greater difficulty in dealing with textually implicit and scriptally implicit type of questions is because they involve higher level cognitive processes. In order to answer textually implicit questions, the reader may be able to find the answer which is embedded somewhere in the text. At the end of the continuum are the scriptally implicit type of questions. In order to answer these correctly, the reader has to integrate information in the text with existing prior knowledge which undoubtedly involves even higher level cognitive processes. It is suggested that teachers provide students with different types of questions to encourage them to think in a variety of ways.

References

Agard, F.B., & Dunkel, H.B. (1948). *An investigation of second language teaching.* Boston: Ginn and Company.

Barrera-Vasquez, A. (1953). The Tarascan Project in Mexico: *Use of Vernacular Languages in Education,* 77-86. Paris: Unesco.

Carrell, P.L. (1983a). Three components of background knowledge in reading comprehension. *Language Learning*, *33*, 183-208.

Carrell, P.L. (1983b). Background knowledge in second language comprehension. *Language Learning and Communication*, *2*, 25-33.

Carrell, P.L., & Wallace, B. (1983). Background knowledge: Context and familiarity in reading comprehension. In M.A. Clarke & J. Handcombe (Eds.), *On TESOL '82: Pacific Perspectives on Language Learning and Teaching*, 295-307. Washington, D.C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Clarke, M.A. (1979). Reading in Spanish and English: Evidence from adult ESL students. *Language Learning*, *29*, 121-150.

Clarke, M.A. (1980). The short circuit hypothesis of ESL reading — or when language competence interferes with reading performance. *Modern Language Journal*, *64*, 203.

Cziko, G.A. (1978). Differences in first and second language reading: The use of syntactic, semantic and discourse constraints. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *34*, 473-487.

Cziko, G.A. (1980). Language competence and reading strategies: A comparison of L1 and L2 oral reading errors. *Language Learning*, *30*, 101-114.

Deemer, H. (1978). The transfer of reading skills from first to second language. *The report of an experiment with Spanish speakers learning English*. University of Pittsburg. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 172-532)

Eskey, D.E. (1979). A model program for teaching advanced reading to students of English as a foreign language. In R. Mackay, B. Barkman & R.R. Jordan (Eds.), *Reading in a second language*, 66-78. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Etherton, A.R.B. (1965). *Comprehensive English Course for Malaysia: Book One*. Berhad, Kuala Lumpur: Longman Malaysia Sdn.

Groebel, L. (1980). A comparison of students' reading comprehension in the native language with their reading comprehension in the target language. *English Language Teaching Journal*, *35*, 54-59.

Guszak, F.J. (1972). *Diagnostic reading instruction in the elementary school*. New York: Harper and Row.

Hatch, E. (1974). Research on reading a second language. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *6*, 53-61.

Heaton, J.B. (1975). *Writing English language tests*. London: Longman Group Ltd.

Hill, J.K. (1981). Effective reading in a foreign language: An experimental reading course in English for overseas students. *English Language Teaching Journal*, *35*, 270-281.

Hudson, T. (1982). The effects of induced schemata on the "short-circuit" of L2 reading: Non-decoding factors in L2 reading performance. *Language Learning*, *32*, 1-31.

Johnson, P. (1981). Effects on reading comprehension of language complexity and

cultural background of a text. *TESOL Quarterly, 15*, 169-181.

Johnson, P. (1982). Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*, 503-515.

Mackay, R., Barkman, B., & Jordan, R.R. (1979). Introduction. In R. Mackay, B. Barkman & R.R. Jordan (Eds.), *Reading in a second language*, v-x. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Modiano, N. (1968). National or mother tongue in beginning reading: A comparative study. *Research in the Teaching of English, 1*, 32-43.

Paulston, C.B., & Bruder, M.N. (1976). *Teaching English as a second language: Techniques and procedures*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Pearson, P.D., & Johnson, D. (1978). *Teaching reading comprehension*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Rivers, W.M. (1968). *Teaching foreign-language skills*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Robinett, B.W. (1978). *Teaching English to speakers of other languages: Substance and technique*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Steffensen, M.S., Joag-Dev, C., & Anderson, R.C. (1979). A crosscultural perspective on reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly, 15*, 10-29.

Thonis, E.W. (1970). *Teaching reading to non-English speakers*. London: Collier - Macmillan.

Ulijn, J.M. (1980). Foreign language reading research: Recent trends and future prospects. *Journal of Research in Reading, 3*, 17-33.

Watson, D. (1980). Learning about the reader. In B. Farr & D.A. Strickler (Eds.), *Reading comprehension: An instructional video-tape series*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press.

West, M. (1931). The problem of "weaning" in reading a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal, 15*, 481-489.

Wilson, C.R. (1983). Teaching reading comprehension by connecting the known to the new. *The Reading Teacher, 36*, 382-390.

ILA 2nd Yearbook 1985
Literacy and Languages

Chapter VIII

The Korean Bilingualism in China and U.S.S.R.

YOUNGSOON PARK
Korea University
Korea

Introduction

This study deals with the present state of Koreans in China and in the U.S.S.R. Bilingualism means a system or an idea that helps a person to be competent in more than one language through education. Bilingualism here will be concerned mainly with the person who happened to live in a foreign country rather than his homeland so that he became to be exposed to two languages. In other words, we are discussing the language situation of immigrants.

When we talk about bilingualism, the level of competence in the two languages is not necessarily equal. Thus when someone speaks two languages we don't ask whether or not he is bilingual, but we ask "how" he is bilingual.

The privilege and importance of becoming a bilingual could be pointed out in several ways. The next section will be devoted to this matter. The third section will discuss the Korean language education for Korean-Chinese, that is, their schooling, maintaining their mother tongue and Korean thinking.

The fourth section will explore Korean-Russian bilingualism. The Korean residing in the Soviet Union is very different from the Korean-Chinese in many respects. The final section will draw a conclusion on the basis of the preceding discussions.

Concept and Importance of Bilingualism

When someone is exposed to two languages, he can learn only one language or both languages. If he learns two languages and becomes com-

petent in both languages, then, we will call him 'bilingual.' If someone learns one language and moves to another place where another language is used, then he might discard the first language and learn and use the second language only, or maintain the first language and learns the second language simultaneously. In the latter case, we would also call him 'bilingual.'

Here, we are concerned mainly with the second type of bilingual, namely, immigrants' bilingualism.

Why do we, then, have to be bilingual if we are immigrants? Because we are human beings. In other words a person of any ethnic background including blood, language, culture and ideology is hardly changed to another ethnicity when he moves to other place where everything is different. Therefore, bilingualism is ideal because it recognizes a speaker's original language and culture, and at the same time it makes it possible for him to learn the second language and adjust to the new environment. And becoming such a bilingual is not hard since human beings are endowed with capabilities to acquire several languages. All we have to do is just develop the potential capability. Actually we know that there are a number of people who speak several languages all over the world.

That's why al most all countries with a group of foreign origin have bilingual education. But Japan still has a monolingual education system which is called the 'melting pot.' The need and importance of bilingualism can be accounted for at least in three levels, i.e., individual, linguistic, and societal. Individually, knowing a language is a privilege. Learning a language, however, requires much time, energy, and money. Yet the parents' language can easily be learned without such expenses. Therefore even if one happens to live somewhere his first language is not used, he doesn't have to discard his first language he already knows. Or he could learn it from his parents. Furthermore, whenever he wants to know about his family roots, or wants to return to his homeland, or when his home country needs him, the language will play a great role. Even if he lives in the new country for all his life, he will be more capable and happier with the two languages rather than one language.

Linguistically speaking, bilingualism is also ideal for a better linguistic life. Because, according to psycholinguists, a bilingual makes better achievement at school. Besides, when he learns a second language, he understands the first language more precisely.

From a social point of view, having some people who are competent

in two languages is also beneficial for any purpose even when they live abroad. In short bilingualism is more natural, more humanistic, and more educational than monolingualism.

Now, then, we could raise a question "what is the best way of helping minority children to become bilingual?"

The way of bilingual education can be discussed in many respects. Here we will consider it in two respects, home and society.

Home

The first thing the student has to do is to be eager to know his origin and have pride and self-esteem on his first language and culture. Next, he should speak the first language as much as possible with his parents at home. And the parents must recognize the privilege and importance of bilingualism for their children and make an effort to teach them their language. They don't have to worry about their children's learning the second language since as far as they are exposed to a language, they will automatically learn the language. Third, they are encouraged to have their children go to Sunday school where the first language is taught. Fourth, they are also encouraged to read them books, newspapers, and magazines written in the first language on weekends and vacations. If possible, traveling to the homeland and visiting relatives and friends who speak the first language are also a good way of becoming bilingual.

Society

Needless to say, the best way for bilingual education would be establishing bilingual schools in foreign countries where it is needed. But financially it is not easy. Therefore, the next best way would be to encourage and support the private or missionary Sunday schools financially, morally or administratively. Next, the most important thing is that the government teach the importance of bilingualism to applicants who apply for immigration. Third, there should be a system to produce bilingual teachers. Fourth, the government involved should support any authorized academic society or research foundation for bilingual education to develop textbooks and other reading materials for bilingual students.

In the next section let us see how the Korean-Chinese live and how they are competent both in Korean and Chinese.

The Korean-Chinese Bilingualism

Introduction

According to the census of 1982, the Chinese government officially announced that the Chinese population is one billion and thirty million. And 6.7 percent of them, sixty seven million and twenty hundred and thirty three thousands, are minority people. But the land which minority people occupy is sixty percent of the whole country (mostly desert or mountainous area).

In China there are fifteen minority groups with more than one million population out of fifty five groups. The Chinese government guarantees the minority people self-governing rights and freedom legally so that the minorities in China can enjoy their own language and culture. The Korean group is not an exception. The Korean population in China is more than two millions. These Koreans mainly live in three Northeast states (Killim-Sung, Hukryong-Sung and Yonyong-Sung). Among the three states, the most people reside in Killim-Sung. Furthermore, they established the Korean self government in Yen-Byon, Killim state in 1952. In this state the Korean population is known as one million and three hundred thousands. The average Korean-Chinese income is as high as twice that of any other group's including Chinese. Because Korean people are the most diligent and the best educated among Chinese minorities, many Koreans are white-color workers such as medical doctors, professors, teachers, engineers, government officials, etc.

Language

The official language of Korean-Chinese is Korean. Not only the first and second generation but the third generation of them also speak Korean. They always use Korean informally, and even in a formal context they use either Korean only or both Korean and Chinese. There are so many Korean schools in China, and the medium of instruction is either Korean or Korean-Chinese bilingual. Such phenomena seem to be not only due to the Chinese policy for minorities but also due to the Korean-Chinese people's effort to keep their first language.

A particularly noticeable fact is that there are a number of publications written in Korean only. Among the publications literary magazines 'Yen-Byon Munye,' 'Arirang,' 'Chindalle' are most famous. All these magazines are written in Korean characters. And various kinds of books are also

published by Korean book companies. Daily newspapers such as 'Yen-Byon Ilbo' are printed in Korean.

The Korean-Chinese listen to the Korean Broadcasting (Far-East or KBS). Recently they have sent many letters to KBS or Far-East Broadcasting station and they could even find their separated family and relatives through the Separated Family Reunion Compaign program of KBS since 1984.

They wear Korean traditional dresses and sing Korean songs on Korean holidays or in Korean gatherings although they are adjusted to and competent in the Chinese language and culture.

As such, the Korean-Chinese live as excellent bilinguals. They are not interested in communism, but they just want to be good Chinese citizens with high status while maintaining Korean identity. They could be said to be ideal bilinguals leading a successful life relating the two linguistically different societies.

Education

The Chinese educational system is five-years of elementary school, three-years of junior high school, and three-years of high school. The Korean-Chinese follow this system. In China there are all levels of Korean schools, from kindergarten to university. The majority of the students and teachers of the Korean schools are Koreans. At present the rate of illiteracy of Korean-Chinese is less than one percent while that of all Chinese is about twenty percent. This statistic shows that Korean people are eager to learn.

The rate of high school graduates going to college is twenty percent which is much higher than that of Chinese, i.e., only about four percent. In Yen-Byon Korean community, there is Yen-Byon University and several colleges. The majority of students and professors of the university and colleges are, of course, Korean.

At Yen-Byon University, the History Research Center, the Research Institute of Korean Affairs, and the Research Center for Japanese History of Philosophy, do research actively. Among those institutions, the Research Institute of Korean Affairs, which was established in 1978, conducts research on humanistic and sociological areas, such as Korean history, Korean language and literature, education, philosophy, economics and the process of modernization of Korea (such as modernization of agriculture and industry), foreign debt, economic growth, the relationship between Red China and North Korea, the international status of South Korea, etc.

And four important academic societies are located in the City of Yen-Kil. They are The Society of Korean Culture, The Society of Korean Language, The Society of Korean History, and The Society of Japanese History.

The representative Korean-Chinese literary organization is the Yen-Byon Branch, Association of Chinese Writers. The organization is a national one. The membership of the organization is two hundred, including poets, novelists, and critics. This organization was established in 1956 and publishes the periodicals 'Yen-Byon Munye' and 'Arirang.'

As mentioned above various magazines, books and newspapers are published by Korean Printing Companies in China.

As we have seen so far the Korean-Chinese are good bilinguals, well-educated, capable, and happy Chinese citizens and at the same time they still remain as Korean people. They also are very competent in the Chinese language and culture. They show a good example of successful life by developing the innate capability of acquiring multiple languages.

The Korean-Russian Bilingualism

Introduction

Compared with the Korean-Chinese, the Korean-Russians are known far less to Korea because there is almost no communication between Korea and the U.S.S.R.

In the U.S.S.R. there are one hundred minorities and among them thirty minorities, including the Korean-Russians, have a population of above three hundred thousands. As of 1979, the Russian government census showed that the Korean-Russian population was three hundred and eighty thousand. But other studies indicate that the Korean population is about eight hundred thousand. Since the Korean-Russians are not allowed to have South Korean citizenship, many of them have Russian citizenship and sixty five percent have North Korean citizenship. The rest, or ten percent, refused both citizenships and only wanted to return to South Korea.

Until the 1930s, most Koreans lived in the far east of Russia, but after 1935, the government of Soviet Union made them move to Central Asia and now they are scattered in three Republics, Uzbek, Kazak, and Russia. Most Koreans live in Tashkent, Khabarovsk, and Sakhalin.

The Korean-Russians were sacrificed by the war, ideology and Russia's

minority policy. Especially the Koreans in Sakhalin were most severely sacrificed by the war and by Japanese colonialism. They still strongly wish to return to Korea. Japan and the Soviet Union are responsible for this. Thus the Korean government must request the two countries to solve the problem as early as possible.

Language

Among the Korean-Russians, about seventy percent used to be Korean-Russian bilinguals. But recently the rate of losing the Korean language and Russianization is increasing.

According to Ginsberg & Ginsberg (1984) sixteen percent of Korean-Russians are competent in Korean only, fifty-two percent still think of Korean as their native language but are equally competent in Russian (namely, bilinguals), and thirty one percent are more competent in Russian.

The Koreans residing in the Republic of Russia speak Russian more than those in any other area. Only forty four percent of them are bilinguals. Others are Russian monolinguals. The Koreans living in Khabarovsk are about twenty thousand, and sixty percent of them live in urban areas while thirty nine percent live in the country. It is very surprising that more than eighty percent of Koreans living in this area think of Korean as their mother tongue while twelve percent of them think of Russian as their mother tongue. Particularly the people in the rural areas are not assimilated to Russian culture and live as "Koreans." Although almost eighty percent of Koreans living in Sakhalin think of Korean as their native language, about sixty percent are Korean-Russian bilinguals.

In these years, however, there is a trend toward assimilation of Korean-Russians. The reasons include the following.

(1) The high rate of living in urban settings. That is, sixty eight percent of Korean-Russians live in urban areas while fifty six percent of the total population of U.S.S.R. live in urban areas. If one lives in a city it is easy to assimilate into the main stream. On the other hand, the country side is isolated and homogeneous in language and culture so that keeping original ethnicity is easy.

(2) The absence of Korean community which enhances a large group of Koreans collectively. That is, a style of scattered living prevents close contact among the Korean people so that keeping Korean ethnicity may not be easy.

(3) Absence of Korean schools. Once there were some Korean schools,

but now there is none, so children can not learn Korean formally.

(4) The Russian minority policy. Unlike China, the Russian government is not interested in bilingualism of minorities, especially of Koreans. It discourages bilingualism.

Education

The educational status of the Koreans is a little lower than that of the majority. It is the opposite case of the Korean-Chinese. The main reason is that they went to the U.S.S.R. without any knowledge of Russian. There is no Korean school, no Korean courses, except for the Sakhalin, where some Korean courses are taught, Korean is not used either as a medium of instruction, or as the language for publication.

Yet the Korean language is recognized as an area for academic research for political and military purposes. The studies on Korean are performed at two levels, at rural schools and at the higher level of research centers.

Y.S. Kim (1979) indicates that Korean studies in the U.S.S.R. were initiated by individuals, but now they are extended and elevated at a higher level, such as research institutions, to fulfill the need. Now, Korean studies are performed at the Oriental Research Institute of Moscow University, the Oriental Research Center of Leningrad Univ., and the Oriental Ethnic Institute of Soviet Science Center.

The greatest contributions to this area are the Hanro-daesajeon (A Great Dictionary of Korean-Russian, Leningrad Univ., 1951) and Choso-daesajeon (A Great Dictionary of Korean-Soviet Language, Leningrad Univ., 1978).

Many Korean-Russians still try to maintain the Korean language and culture in spite of the difficult situations described above. They enjoy Korean foods, such as rice and Kimchi, and they celebrate both the wedding ceremony and birthday in the Korean way. Most Koreans marry Koreans. Therefore, Korean language/culture will be maintained at least for the time being, although informally.

Conclusion

So far we have seen the importance of bilingual education and the present status of Korean-Chinese and Korean-Russians. The difficulties of minorities in the world are not just linguistic, legal, economic, social,

cultural or educational alone, but all of these affairs are interconnected.

Fortunately, most of the Korean-Chinese are bilingual. They publish various magazines and books in the Korean language. Therefore, it would be good to exchange the reading materials between the scholars of Korea and of the Korean community in China and if possible, it would also be good to have a seminar or symposium on bilingualism together. And exchanging scholars could also be hoped for.

The Korean-Chinese are different from Korean-Russians in many ways. First of all, unlike in China, there is neither a Korean community, nor Korean schools in the Soviet Union so that the rate of bilingualism is decreasing. It means that Russian speaking monolingual Koreans are increasing. And those who discard the Korean language and culture are decreasing. There is no way to help them or communicate with them at present.

But for those in Sakhalin, we should be concerned about them and make every effort to help them to return home. They have suffered too much already. They should be freed now. No one has a right to sacrifice innocent persons. The Koreans in Sakhalin want to return home, and they make great efforts to keep their Korean language and culture as well as the Russian.

References

Choi, K.H. (1978). The Koreans in Tashkent, *Wolgan Joong Ang, No. 120.*

Choi, Y.C. (1983). Soviet Koreans and Korean Culture in the U.S.S.R. Seminar on the Korean Minorities in U.S.S.R.

Hyun, W. (1984). *The Koreans in China.* Seoul: Pen Yang Sa.

Ginsberg, G., & Ginsberg H. (1984). The Position of Koreans in the Soviet Union. *Kyopo-Jongchaik-Jaryo, No. 21.*

Kang, J.J. (ed.). (1979). *Korea and U.S.S.R.* Seoul: Joong Ang Printing Co.

Kim, B.T. (1984). Russian Minority Policies and Korean Nation. *Kyopo-Jongchaik-Jaryo, No. 21.*

Kim, J.H. (ed.) (1983). *The Korean-Chinese People.* Seoul: Association of Korean Broadcasting.

Kim, M.S. (1983). Bilingual Education for Overseas Koreans: The Korean-Japanese Case. *Bilingual Education for the Overseas Koreans, No. 1.*

Kim, Y.S. (1983). The Academic Activity of Korean-Russian Scholars. A Speech at the Korean Cultural Center.

Lee, M.W. (1983). Koreans in Central Asia: A Study of Culturalization. Seminar

on the Korean Minorities in U.S.S.R.

Ozaki, H. (1983). Koreans in Central Asia. Seminar on the Korean Minorities in U.S.S.R.

Park, H.S. (1984). The Community in China. *Kyopyo-Jongchaik Jaryo, No. 21.*

Park, Y.S. (1981). *On Bilingualism, Journal of Education College of Education, No. 6.* Seoul: Korea University.

Park, Y.S. (1983). Bilingual Education and the Overseas Korean Children. *Bilingual Education for the Overseas Koreans, No. 1.*

Stephen, J.J. (1971). The Korean Minority in the Soviet Union. *Incorporating Central Asian Review, Vol XIII, No. 3.*

Synn, S.K. (1983). A Study of the Korean Immigrants in the Soviet Union. Seminar on the Korean Minorities in U.S.S.R.

Wada, H. (1983). The Korean of the Russian and Soviet Far East (1863-1937). Seminar on the Korean Minorities in U.S.S.R.

Yoo, K.J. (1984). The Korean in China. *Kyopyo-Jongchaik Jaryo, No. 21.*

ILA 2nd Yearbook 1985
Literacy and Language

Chapter IX

English as an International Language: Implications and Issues

UHN-KYUNG CHOI
Duksung Women's University
Korea

I

English is taught in nearly every country of the world: It has been, and still is, a vehicle of successful communication among different nations. The flexibility and wealth of the English language contribute to its popularity. That English has thus become the most widely spread of the very few languages that can qualify as truly international is a fact that we have to live with and take advantage of. English as an international language means that we no longer speak only of the nature of the language, but also of its function as well.

No language is more widely used or studied than English. In other words, English is used by people whose mother tongues are different. The international diffusion of English may be viewed in terms of three groups. These groups represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts. These groups may be labeled the inner group, the outer group, and the expanding group.

The present paper aims at analyzing the global picture of English, reviewing the history of English and looking into the developing sociolinguistic realities of English. Additional contents include world Englishes with varieties and subvarieties of English, the emphasis on *la parole* and language use. The issues related to the "internationalization" of English are raised and recommendations are made.

II

The universal demand for English has developed during the past five decades or so. Accordingly the number of English speakers has increased. Then how many people in the world speak English as the first, the second or an auxiliary language? The estimate given by Albert H. Marckwardt in *American English* was between 300 million and 325 million, about one-seventh of the world's population (1958: 1). However, in the revised edition of the book, the total number of speakers of English is listed between 800 and 900 million, nearly one-fourth of the world's population (1980: 3). According to Kachru, ten major English-using nations include the following (1984: 25). The data is based on *The Statesman's Year-book 1983-1984*:

Countries	Population(in millions)
U.S.A.	226.50
U.K.	55.93
India	27.36
Canada	24.60
Australia	14.92
Bar ;ladesh	3.56
Nigeria	3.60
Pakistan	3.02
Tanzania	0.74
Kenya	0.63

The popularity of English certainly invites the scrutiny of its history and characteristics.

What kind of language is English? How has it come into being? What are the characteristics of this particular language?

When English was introduced into the British Isles around the middle of the fifth century, it was entirely a foreign tongue to the native people. About the year 449 an event occurred which profoundly affected the course of the English history. In that year began the invasion of Britain by the Germanic tribes, the founders of the English nation.

In the meantime, the first people in England about whose language we have definite knowledge are the Celts. The Celts called their Germanic conquerors Saxons without careful distinction. But soon the terms *Angli* and *Anglia* occurred beside Saxons and referred not to the Angles in-

dividually but to the Teutons generally. From the beginning, writers in the vernacular never called their language anything but *Englisc*(English). The word derives from the name of the Angles but is used haphazardly for the language of all invading tribes (Baugh 1978: 80).

The language we know today as English developed around 1400 out of the Anglo-Saxon dialects spoken in the southern part of England, with a great deal of borrowing from Norman French, the language of the Normans who had conquered England in 1066 (Strevens 1972: 5). At that time Wales, Scotland and Ireland were separate countries. Besides, the New World was not known to the Europeans. Australia had not yet been discovered. Latin was the language European scholars communicated in. Although English began on the geographical area of Great Britain, it spread throughout the world.

As exploration widened and colonies of settlers were established, European languages were used in places far from Europe. As far as English is concerned, the divergences are the basis for the emergence of British and American forms of English.

The evolution of English in the fifteen hundred years of its existence in England has been continuous. For matters of convenience the periods of the English language are divided into Old English (449-1100), Middle English (1100-1500) and Modern English (1500-) (Pyles 1982: 98-165).

The world in which we live is changing faster than ever before, and English is inevitably changing with it. English spoken today differs from that spoken in earlier periods. In other words, the history of English shows the process of continuous transition from the period of full inflections to the period of leveled inflections and again to the period of lost inflections. The very process of change characterizes the life of living things. English has not ceased to change. English is not a dead language. Furthermore, it will continue to change. Old words die out and new words are added. Existing words will change their meaning.

There are many languages in the world and each looks uniquely important to those who speak it as their mother tongue. However, English is regarded as the world's most important language. Why? There should be objective standards of relative importance. One of the criteria is the number of native speakers that a language happens to have. The other criteria include the geographical dispersion of a language, its extent as a medium of various manifestation, and the political, cultural and economic influence of the speakers of it.

If we think only in terms of the total number of speakers, the first criterion would make English lag behind Chinese, the various Indic languages and Russian. However, both Chinese and Indic include a large number of mutually unintelligible dialects, even though the number of speakers may seem very impressive. The facet of geographic distribution is equally, maybe even more, significant. English is spoken as a first or native language on every continent. According to Baugh, English is spoken as a first language by more than 340 million people in the United States, the United Kingdom and the former British Empire (1978: 3). If we take into account those who speak English as a second or auxiliary language, the guesses range from 500 million to 700 million. A reasonably conservative conclusion would place the total number of speakers of English between 800 and 900 million as stated earlier.

The international diffusion of English may be viewed in terms of three groups. Braj B. Kachru labels these the inner circle, the outer circle, and the expanding circle (1984: 25).

The inner group pertains to the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English: those areas where English is used as the first language, for example, the United States, Great Britain, Canada, Ireland, South Africa, the Caribbean, Australia, and New Zealand.

The outer group, according to Kachru (1984) can be defined in linguistic, political, and sociocultural terms. The group represents the institutionalized non-native varieties of English. Usually the political histories of the areas where such varieties are used have some common characteristics. These areas have undergone extended periods of colonization and the users of the inner group varieties left indelible traces. In other words, this colonization has left a linguistic legacy which cannot be removed. Interestingly the outer group forms a speech community of great size and diversity. The distinctive characteristics of this speech community are as follows: First, English is one of two or more linguistic codes in the verbal repertoire of bilingual and multilingual speakers of English in traditional multilingual societies. Second, English functions in cultural context which is not English. Third, English has a crucial role to play in such multilingual countries. For example, in India English is an "associate" official language; in Singapore it is a major language of government and education; and in Nigeria it is an official language. Fourth, English is used by various members of society and shows varying degrees of competence. Fifth, English has been established as a medium of locally produced literary tradition

of different genres.

The expanding group adds an entirely different dimension to English. It is used in the areas which have not been under the colonial rule of the English-speaking nations. This group is growing rapidly. Since World War II, English has been much in demand and the claims of the internationalization of English have been strengthened and functionally justified. This group includes, for example, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Zimbabwe, China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan, Nepal, Indonesia, Israel, and U.S.S.R.

One of the strong attributes of English as an international language is that the speakers of it can comprehend each other in both its spoken and written forms. Unlike other foreign languages, English serves in many regions of the world as a vehicle for science, for the mass media and entertainment and for literature even though there are local languages.

However, the diverse forms of English often bring many new problems to the users of English. In addition, the use of English for purely local purposes creates new circumstances unknown in the native language situation. The existence of Australian English, New Zealand English, Hong Kong English, Korean English, Singapore English are examples of this trend. The world-wide spread of diverse forms of English has given cause for concern over the acceptability of certain varieties of the language as models for particular sociolinguistic contexts. The local forms of English can be defined in terms of the following parameters (Strevens 1980: 66): Dialect and accent, range of varieties, discoursal rules, existence of standard and non-standard forms, and primary-language and secondary language forms. In addition, forms of English are further differentiated from each other by other variables relating to uses, attitudes, and affinities within the English-speaking community.

Then let us look into a few examples of world "Englishes." According to Prof. Platt, Singapore had instituted a system of bilingual education with either (a) English as language of education and Chinese, Malay, or the South Indian language Tamil as second language, or (b) Chinese, Malay, or Tamil as medium of education and English as second language. But the trend towards education in English has continued and overwhelmingly English is *the* language of education. Some features of the more colloquial type of Singapore English are as follows (1983: 81-84):

Phonetic Features

Final stop sounds are often not pronounced or are replaced by a glottal stop, e.g. *ba'*(back), *be'*(bet or bed) and final pairs of consonants are often reduced to one, e.g. *wen'*(went), *expec'*(expect). The fricative consonants *th* in English are often replaced by stops, e.g. *dis*(this), *ting*(thing or think). Diphthong vowels are often simplified.

Grammatical Features

Obvious features are the omission of *be*, e.g. *This kind very good*, verbs unmarked for tense, e.g. *I live here ten years already* or for third person singular, e.g. *She sing very well* and nouns unmarked for plural, e.g. *How many egg you want?* Other characteristic features include the omission of pronouns when it is clear who or what is meant, e.g. *Where you bought?* (Where did you buy it?), *Don' have*(as a reply — I don't have any), the placing of the direct or indirect object at the beginning of the sentence for emphasis, e.g. *This kind cannot get* (we/you can't get this kind). From the Chinese dialects comes the use of particles for emphasizing, questioning, and other functions, e.g. *Ok lah! Ok lah! You ring me tonight lah!* Instead of the Standard English system of question tags, invariant *is it?* and *isn't it?* are used, e.g. *She come tomorrow, is it?*

Vocabulary

The use of Malay and Chinese words and expressions is common, e.g. Malay Makan 'food' (*makanan* in Standard Malay), *botak* 'bald' (often used for very short cropped hair), Hokkien Chinese *chiah choa* (literally 'eat snake' = 'shirk duty'). Another noticeable feature is the use of words which, to speakers of British English, seem too formal or more appropriately used to or in relation to children, e.g. *I terminated* (finished work) *six months ago; My mum is not educated* (said by a business executive). As Singapore English developed through the English-medium schools, these two characteristics are not surprising, as the language of the classroom became semi-fossilized.

According to Prof. R.R.Mehrotra's paper, Indian English shows special registral features of film advertising. Peculiar film advertising expressions are as follows (1984: 160-163): *hit, houseful, starcast, cinematic, cinegoer, grand gala opening, daily four shows,* and *on area public demand.*

Often when the existing stock of words is felt to be inadequate, new words are coined. Coinages by film advertisers include: *spell-binding, star-*

rer(in 'multi-starrer'), *screenful*, *goer*('cine-goer'), *chiller*, *howlarious*, *touchy*(as in *a heart touchy film*).

Sometimes uncommon and often bizarre collocations and compounds occur. They include *laugh magic*, *family film*, *family crowds*, *razor-edged climax*, *a touching memory piece*, *diamond rush*, and *tears and cheers*.

New Zealand English shows distinctive characteristics and Maori influence according to a case study done by R.J.Matthews (1983: 75-80, 1984: 156-159).

Phonology

my pronounced /mə/, even before vowels; intervocalic *t* pronounced /d/; words stressed differently, thus *ad'ult*, *phila'telic*.

Grammar

different followed by *to* or *than*, as well as *from*; *got to* in the sense of logical deduction, as in *you've got to be joking*. *hopefully* meaning *I hope* and not in a hopeful manner.

Register

Numerous expressions considered as very colloquial elsewhere can be used in formal situations in NZE in both speech and writing. *hooley* meaning *a good time at a party*; *odd* in the sense of *approximately*, used on TV, *sick* for *ill*, almost universal, going well beyond the British practice; *guy*, and *joker*, informally used. Picturesque words and phrases are often used with deliberate humor.

Greasy when wet on a road sign: the road becomes slippery when it rains. *Weave with care* on a road sign: drivers must merge with other lanes. *Cobber clobber* on a shop sign: clothing for leisure, for time spent with friends (cobbers).

Vocabulary

arvo for *afternoon*, *commo* (communist), *smoko* (tea-break), and *metho* (methylated spirits drinker); *belgium* for *luncheon sausage*; *crook* for *angry*, *wrong*, *ill*; *creek* for *stream*, *mob* for *flock* of sheep, *picture* or *pictures* for *film*, *store* for *shop*; *marae*(Maori, a meeting ground), *tapu*(sacred).

British Words Used in a Special Sense

In most cases the British use coexists with the NZE one. *European* for *white*

New Zealander (*pakeha* in Maori), *lay* for *lie*, *stand* for *clump of trees* in National Park, *shout* for *pay a round of drinks* in a pub or bar.

Modernisms

These are words or expressions of innovative character. *buswise* for *by bus*, as in *I'm going buswise*. *midtown* for reference to an adjoining but distinct part of the central city area. *winery* for *wine shop*.

Slang

ace for *good, excellent*, *tip-toe* (a negative *unace*); *gander* for *look* in *have a gander*; *neat* for *well done, good, fine*; also *clever, witty, on the ball*; *shoot through* or *swan off* for *leave*

Idioms

within cooey for *within earshot*; *hooray* for 'goodbye'; *how are you going* for *hello*, the pronunciation being distorted as /eə'gʌn/; *crack a coolie* for open a bottle of beer

According to Prof. David Williams, Nigerian Spoken English shows variations in forms and in pronunciation. Therefore, teachers are faced with the problem of determining the acceptability of varieties of Nigerian English accent as measured against some hypothetical speech norm (1983: 6-10).

III

The world-wide spread of diverse forms of English has given cause for concern over the acceptability of certain varieties of the language. Even in places where it is recognized that a local variety of English is desirable, there remains a widespread apprehension that variation from mother-tongue forms may lead to thoughts that these variations embody a "second-class" English.

In fact, the word "Englishes" introduces "a vital concept of pluralism, of linguistic heterogeneity, of cultural diversity, and of dramatically different theoretical and methodological foundations for teaching and research in English" (Kachru 1984: 26).

All Englishes are not equal. However, it is important for English speakers to instill a sensitivity to a wide range of Englishes. Even though the con-

troversy has been going on over the legitimacy of Third World varieties of English, there is now a growing acceptance of the idea that English is not the sole property of native speakers.

In relation to Englishes and teaching English some issues and recommendations can be raised and made. First of all, nowadays English is no longer learned only to communicate with the Americans (or the British). English is used not only for intranational functions but also for international functions. Therefore, people's motivation for learning English should be considered when teaching English. There is also a problem of acculturation. Since English has become the common property of all cultures, the "traditional" acculturation is not necessarily positively correlated with progress in language learning.

Second, the study of sub-languages and registers deserves greater scholarly attention. This is especially so when descriptive, pedagogical, and stylistic purposes are involved. A shift of emphasis from the 'universalist tradition' to the 'particularist' which emphasizes variation and change within a language in accordance with divergencies in communicative situation, is clearly indicated in Mehrotra's paper (1984: 160-163). Therefore, studies on newly developing sociolinguistic realities of English should be made systematically and with the support of a major scholarly organization.

Third, the emphasis on *la parole* and language use in teaching English tends to produce acceptable speakers but they have nothing to say. This must be closely related to the fact that they are in fact semi-literate or nearly illiterate in English.

Fourth, people learning English need the ability to teach themselves what they will need when they are outside the classroom on their own.

English has become an international language. Now English is the language for the different nationalities. In the Third World countries where transplanted varieties of English proliferate, the choice of uses, functions and models of English has to be made on a pragmatic basis, keeping in view the local needs and conditions. It will, therefore, be proper that the native speakers of English show an attitude of linguistic tolerance. Since the general trend is clearly in favor of high standards of English for formal purposes, there seems little likelihood of world Englishes moving away from the mainstream of English as an international language. English is, no doubt, the closest approximation to an international language available today, even to those who are not ready to accept it (Choi 1982: 260).

References

Baugh, Albert C. (1978). *A History of the English Language*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Choi, U.K. (1982). English as an International and World Language. *English Teaching 24, Supplement*. Seoul: CETAK.

Kachru, Braj B. (1984). Institutionalized Second Language Varieties. In Sidney Greenbaum (ed.), *The English Language Today*. London: Pergamon Press.

Kachru, Braj B. (1984). World Englishes and the Teaching of English to Non-native Speakers: Contexts, Attitudes, and Concerns. *TESOL Newsletter, XVIII: 5*.

Kachru, Braj B. (ed.). (1982). *The Other Tongue: English across Cultures*. Urbana: Univ. of Ill. Press. Oxford: Pergamon.

Marckwardt, A.H., & J.L. Dillard. (1980). *American English*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press.

Matthews, R.J. (1983). New Zealand English: a Case Study. *World Language English, 2: 2*.

Mehrotra, R.R. (1984). Registral Features of Film Advertising in Indian English. *World Language English, 3: 3*.

Myers, L.M. (1966). *The Roots of Modern English*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co.

Paxton, John. (ed.). (1983). *The Statesman's Year-book 1983-84*. London: Macmillan.

Platt, John T. (1983). The Development of Singapore English. *World Language English, 2: 2*.

Pyles, Thomas, & Algeo, John. (1982). *The Origins and Development of the English Language*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Quirk, et al. (1972). *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. New York: Seminar Press.

Strevens, Peter. (1980). *Teaching English as an International Language*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Strevens, Peter. (1972). *British and American English*. London: Collier-Macmillan.

Williams, David. (1983). Attitudes towards Varieties of Nigerian Spoken English. *World Language English, 3: 1*.

Yao, Nien-keng. (1984). An Underlying Problem with Chinese Students of English. *World Language English, 3: 2*.

BYLAWS

LITERACY AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA

I. PURPOSE

Literacy and Languages in Asia (LLA) members shall systematically communicate within IRA for academic/professional purposes that are relevant to the IRA purposes designated in IRA Bylaws and that are relevant to the following areas.

Languages: (1) English as an international language (EIL);
(2) other second/foreign languages (L2);
(3) native languages in relation to EIL or other L2.

Aspects: (4) reading and writing, including literature, in (1)-(3);
(5) spoken language in (1)-(3) in relation to reading;
(6) linguistics, pure or applied, in (1)-(3).

Approaches: (7) theory-oriented research studies;
(8) research/development of instructional methods;
(9) research/development of teaching materials and teacher education.

II. ACTIVITIES

(1) To realize the purposes, LLA members shall be encouraged to write articles relevant to the LLA interest areas designated above, and these articles, when officially accepted, shall be reprinted at the LLA office for their distribution among members.
(2) Group presentations on specified theme(s) shall be organized for IRA World Congresses, IRA Annual Conventions, Asian conferences, and other IRA or non-IRA international meetings.
(3) Joint research projects shall be organized and conducted internationally.
(4) LLA newsletters and other publications shall be planned.
(5) Other activities may be identified.

III. MEMBERSHIP

LLA membership shall be open to all IRA members, or non-IRA members who are expected to join IRA because of their interests in furthering the purposes of IRA and LLA.

Dues for active membership shall begin to be collected in October, 1983. Active members shall receive all LLA reprints and publications free. Non-active members who sign the agreement to be an LLA member but do not pay dues shall receive only newsletters free. Dues shall be set or changed by Representatives.

IV. REPRESENTATIVES

Two-year-term LLA Representatives shall be elected by active members.

LLA Representatives shall have the equivalent functions of IRA Board of Directors and Delegates Assembly designated in IRA Bylaws. Each country that has more than three and fewer than ten active members on the official membership record shall have one two-year-term Representative. A country that has more than ten active members shall have two two-year-term Representatives.

The number of current active members in each country as of May 30 shall be accepted as the official record of LLA membership of the year.

When the Representative office of a country expires, LLA Coordinator (see V) shall send letters in the first week of June to LLA active members in that country to elect the new Representative(s). All active members, including the ex-Representative(s), shall be listed on the voting sheet so that members can check one of them for their Representative. The one (or two) who wins the largest number of checks in the returned voting sheets before the end of the second week of July shall become the new Representative(s).

Representatives shall read members' articles to decide whether to accept them officially or not. Officially accepted articles shall be reprinted or published for distribution among LLA active members.

When at least two Representatives recommend acceptance of an article, and no Representative definitely opposes its acceptance, the article is to be officially accepted.

V. OFFICERS

In the English alphabetical order of single-word country names, beginning with the name of the country that has the largest number of founding members, each Representative shall serve as one-year-term LLA Vice-president, by turn. At the expiration of the term as Vice-president, the Vice-president shall then automatically succeed to the office of President for one year. When a country has two Representatives, the one whose family name in English precedes the other's in the alphabetical order, shall serve as LLA Vice-president. One member shall not serve as Vice-president more than one term. If the current Representative of a country is an ex-President, and if that country has only one Representative, then another Representative shall be elected according to LLA bylaws, who shall serve as new LLA Vice-president, in addition to the current Representative and ex-President from that country.

A three-year-term Coordinator shall be elected by Representatives every three years from among LLA active members who are not Representatives. The Coordinator shall assume the equivalent functions of the IRA Executive Director designated in IRA Bylaws, in addition to the responsibilities relevant to LLA article reprints, newsletters, other publications, mailing, and organization of joint projects, presentations, and conferences.

For the election of a new Coordinator, in the first week of May, before the current Coordinator's term expires in August, the LLA President shall request by mail that each Representative should recommend one person for the new Coordinator; then, the President shall send by mail a list of the recommended names to the Representatives so that they shall check one person for the new Coordinator. The one who is checked by the largest number of the second week of July shall serve as the next Coordinator, beginning to work in the second week of August. If the elected person does not agree to serve as the Coordinator, the one who won the largest votes next to the person shall serve as the Coordinator.

VI. QUORUM

A majority of returned mail or an LLA meeting shall constitute a quorum, unless a quorum is specified for a case.

A proposal may be adopted officially by a majority of affirmative votes of the quorum, unless other regulations are specified.

Any procedures not specified in the LLA bylaws shall be carried out according to IRA Bylaws, unless LLA Representatives adopt a particular regulation or its equivalent proposition.

For further information about LLA and LLA membership, please contact Prof. Byong Won Kim, College of Education, Hanyang University, Seoul 133, Korea.